DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 469 785 CE 080 082

AUTHOR	King, Kathleen P., Ed.; Ferro, Trenton R., Ed.
TITLE	Proceedings of the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference (2nd, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000).
SPONS AGENCY	Pennsylvania Association for Adult Continuing Education.; Pennsylvania State Univ., University Park. Cooperative Extension Service.; National Center for the Study of Adult Learning and Literacy, Boston, MA.; Pennsylvania State Univ., University Park. Coll. of Education.
PUB DATE	2000-03-00
NOTE	343p.; Conference title was "From Generation to Consolidation: Building Upon the Best of Theory and Practice in Adult Education." Also sponsored by Pennsylvania State University Adult Education Graduate Program.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Proceedings (021)
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF01/PC14 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Academic Persistence; Access to Computers; Action Research; Adult Education; *Adult Educators; *Adult Learning; *Adult Literacy; Cluster Analysis; Disadvantaged; Distance Education; Economic Factors; English (Second Language); Family School Relationship; Foreign Countries; *Informal Education; Labor Force Development; Literature Reviews; Nontraditional Occupations; Nontraditional Students; Outcomes of Education; Postsecondary Education; *Professional Education; Research Utilization; School Community Relationship; Teacher Attitudes; Teacher Education; *Theory Practice Relationship; Transformative Learning; Vocational Education; Web Based Instruction
IDENTIFIERS	Botswana; Lindeman (Eduard); New York; Wisconsin (Milwaukee)

ABSTRACT

Focusing on interactions between theory and practice in adult education, this proceedings of refereed papers (45), symposia (3) and roundtable summaries (21) include the following: "Adult Literacy Classroom as a Social System" (Beder); "Documenting Outcomes for Learners and Their Communities" (Bingman, Mincey); "Essence of Leadership: Looking Through the Eyes of Black Protestant Pastors" (Brown-Haywood); "Simulating the Impact of Web-Based Learning on the University" (Carr-Chellman, et al.); "Relationship of Teaching Style, Personality Profile, and Level of Burnout with Adult Educator Effectiveness" (Cason); "Faculty Perceptions of Accelerated and Traditional Course Formats" (Cini, Fritz); "Defining the 'Nontraditional' College Student Through Cluster Analysis" (Dowd, Coury); "Introducing the Mentor Role in Online Distance Learning" (Easton); "Selecting Communications Technology for Continuing Professional Education Program Delivery" (Graybash); "Epistomology at Work: Extension Educators and Their Ways of Knowing" (Haugen); "Why They Come: An Exploration Into Retention and Motivation in an Adult ESL Program" (Nowalk); "Pre-Service Teachers' Ways of Knowing and the Development of Reflective Thinking" (Ostorga, King); "Why Adult Educators Should Care About Diversity" (Parker); "Critical Success Factors for Internet-Based Learning in Developmental Mathematics" (Perez, Foshay); "Adult Education as Vocational Training"(Raditloaneng); "Critical Analysis of Adult Learning Theories" (Shin, Schied); "Factors Enhancing Participation in Continuing Professional Education for Social Workers in Rural Locations" (Shuman, Spikes); "Determination of Factors Affecting User

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made
from the original document.

Acceptance of a Computer-Based Training Support Tool in the Workplace" (Wagner, Flannery); and "Learning to Live Beyond a Heart Attack" (Wise). Individual papers contain references. (CG)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made
from the original document.

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND
DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL HAS
BEEN GRANTED BY

T. Ferro

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES
INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

1

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)

☒ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

- Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

ED 469 785

THE SECOND EASTERN REGIONAL

ADULT EDUCATION RESEARCH PROCEEDINGS

FROM GENERATION TO CONSOLIDATION:

BUILDING UPON THE BEST OF THEORY AND PRACTICE IN ADULT EDUCATION

MARCH 16-18, 2000

THE PENN STATER CONFERENCE CENTER HOTEL
UNIVERSITY PARK/STATE COLLEGE, PENNSYLVANIA

an outreach program of the College of Education

PENNSTATE

1855 University Park

2

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Proceedings

of the

Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

March 16 - 18, 2000

Edited by
Kathleen P. King, Ed.D. and Trenton R. Ferro, Ed.D.

Sponsored by
Pennsylvania Association for Adult Continuing Education
Pennsylvania State University Outreach & Cooperative Extension
Pennsylvania State University Adult Education Graduate Program
National Center for the Study of Adult Learning and Literacy,
Harvard University

Held at
Pennsylvania State University
University Park, Pennsylvania

Proceedings

of the

Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

March 16 - 18, 2000

Edited by
Kathleen P. King, Ed.D. and Trenton R. Ferro, Ed.D.

Proceedings printed by
Pennsylvania State University
University Park, Pennsylvania

Introduction

Welcome to the *Second Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference--From Generation to Consolidation: Building Upon the Best of Theory and Practice in Adult Education*. This conference completes a second cycle, begun in 1994, of two statewide adult education research conferences held in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, followed by a regional conference hosted by The Pennsylvania State University, the first regional conference occurring in 1996. The statewide conferences were hosted by Penn State-Monroeville (1994), Indiana University of Pennsylvania (1995), Widener University (1998), and Temple University-Harrisburg (1999). No conference was held in 1997 as a result of moving the conference date from early fall to early spring.

These conferences emphasize both the on-going importance of, and struggle concerning, the interactive roles of theory, research, and practice. This interaction has been a primary, ongoing theme of the precursor of these regional meetings, the Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing, and Community Education. This interaction has been a key component and factor in the development of the field of adult education, as explicated by Cervero (1991), who has developed a typology of relationships between theory and practice--the various ways in which professionals and practitioners have approached this conundrum: (1) adult education without theory, (2) theory as the foundation for practice, (3) theory in practice, and (4) theory and practice for emancipation. This interaction has also been addressed in several articles in the *PAACE Journal of Lifelong Learning* (Cunningham, 1998; Dean, 1999, Dirkx, 1998, Quigley, 1999).

This conference continues the quest. It acknowledges the intimate, intertwined, and intractable relationship that exists between research and practice without attempting to untie the Gordian knot. We, the editors of this volume, are confident that you will profit considerably both from participating in this conference and from reading, ingesting, and implementing what your peers have investigated, have tried, and report herein.

Learn, grow, apply, enjoy!

Trenton R. Ferro, Indiana University of Pennsylvania
Kathleen P. King, Fordham University
Proceedings Editors

REFERENCES

Cervero, R. M. (1991). Changing relationships between theory and practice. In J. M. Peters, P. Jarvis, & Associates, *Adult education: Evolution and achievements in a developing field of study* (pp. 19-41). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Cunningham, P. M. (1998). The social dimensions of transformative learning. *PAACE Journal of Lifelong Learning, 7*, 15-28.

Dean, G. J. (1999). Reality and research in adult education: Do opposites really attract? *PAACE Journal of Lifelong Learning, 8*, 21-30.

Dirkx, J. M. (1998). Transformative learning theory in the practice of adult education: An overview. *PAACE Journal of Lifelong Learning, 8*, 1-14.

Quigley, B. A. (1999). Lions at the gate: Adult education research, research-in-practice, and speculative audacity. *PAACE Journal of Lifelong Learning, 9*, 1-19.

Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Chair

Eunice N. Askov
Pennsylvania State University

Program Committee

Ian Baptiste,
Pennsylvania State University

Hal Beder,
Rutgers University

Cheryl Boyer,
Temple University Harrisburg

John Comings,
National Center for the Study of Adult Learning and Literacy, Harvard University

Roy Cox, Jr.
Pennsylvania State University

Gary Dean,
Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Merrill Ewert,
Cornell University

Trenton Ferro,
Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Victoria Fisher,
Neumann College

Daniele Flannery,
Penn State Harrisburg

Roger Hiemstra,
Elmira College

Gaye Jenkins,
Pennsylvania State University

Kathy Kalinosky,
State College Area School District

Kathleen King,
Fordham University

Kathleen Kramer,
Temple University Harrisburg

Gary Kuhne,
Pennsylvania State University

Patricia Lawler,
Widener University

Dehra Shafer,
Pennsylvania State University

Conference Sponsors

Pennsylvania Association for Adult Continuing Education
Pennsylvania State University Outreach & Cooperative Extension
Pennsylvania State University Adult Education Graduate Program
National Center for the Study of Adult Learning and Literacy, Harvard University

Proceedings of the

Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

March 16 - 18, 1999

Table of Contents by Author

Refereed Papers

Beder, H.	The Adult Literacy Classroom as a Social System	3
Bingman, M. & Ebert, O	"I've Come a Long Way:" A Report on a Study of Outcomes of Adult Literacy Programs: An Action Research Project	9
Bingman, M. & Mincey, R.	Documenting Outcomes for Learners and Their Communities	15
Brown, S.	Strategies That Contribute to Nontraditional/Adult Student Development and Persistence	21
Brown-Haywood, F.	The Essence of Leadership: Looking Through the Eyes of Black Protestant Pastors	27
Carr-Chellman, A. Choi, I. & Hernandez-Serrano, J.	Simulating the Impact of Web-Based Learning on the University	35
Cason, K. L.	Relationship of Teaching Style, Personality Profile, and Level of Burnout with Adult Educator Effectiveness	41
Cini, M. & Fritz, J.M.H.	Faculty Perceptions of Accelerated and Traditional Course Formats	47
Coyle, E. & Ellinger, A.	A Comparison of Mezirow's Transformation Theory and the Change Process Experienced by Female Entrepreneurs	53
D'Amico, D. & Donnelly, M.	Blurring the Boundaries Between Acquisition and Learning Television-Based Literacy Services in Community and Home Contexts	59
Dowd, A. & Coury, T.	Defining the "Nontraditional" College Student Through Cluster Analysis	65
Easton, S.	Introducing the Mentor Role in Online Distance Learning: A Case Study of Implementation at Florida State University	71

Table of Contents (Continued)

Ferro, T. R.	Multiple Intelligences and Adult Learning: A Review of the Literature	77
Folkman, D., & Rai, K.	Adult Educator Role in Fostering Collaborative Leadership: The Milwaukee Wisconsin Experience in School-Family -Community Partnerships	83
Gersten, K.	Johnny Can Read; He Chooses Not To: The Reading Development of Literate Adults Who Do Not Engage in Leisure Reading	89
Giles, I. & Thompson, T.G.	One to Two Hundred Fifty WWW-Based Courses in Twenty-Four Months: An Analysis of the Selection, Training, Development, and Retention of Faculty within a Rapid Course-Growth Environment	95
Glowacki-Dudka, M. & Rossing, B.	Dialogue for Understanding. Dialogue for Action: Tensions in Real World Practice	101
Graybash, Jr., P.	Selecting Communications Technology for Continuing Professional Education Program Delivery	107
Griffin, J.	The New Millennium: Proper Timing for the Inclusion of African Americans' Contributions to Adult Education	113
Haugen, H.	Epistemology at Work: Extension Educators and Their Ways of Knowing	119
King, K. P.	Crossing Cultural and Linguistic Borders: The Adult ESL Experience of Perspective Transformation	125
McKnight, J.	Teaching Community Directed Education and Research Methods and Techniques: A Case Study	131
Morrow, K.	Learning to Learn: What Happens when Research Recommendations Hit the Ground?	137
Mulenga, D.	The Role of Adult Education in the New World Order: A Perspective from the South	143
Nowalk, T.	Why They Come: An Exploration Into Retention and Motivation in an Adult ESL Program	151
Oblender, T., Flannery, D., & Ellinger, A. Willard-Holt, C.	The Community Life Task Force as an Informal Community-Based Adult Education Program: A Continua of Critical Reflection, Dialogue, and Praxis	155
Ostorga, A. & King, K. P.	Pre-Service Teachers' Ways of Knowing and the Development of Reflective Thinking	161

Table of Contents (Continued)

Parker, O.M.	Why Adult Educators Should Care About Diversity: A Literature Review	167
Pearce, C.	Informal Learning of Homeless Women: A Feminist Study of Surviving the Everyday	173
Perez, S. & Foshay, W.	Critical Success Factors for Internet-Based Learning in Developmental Mathematics: A Preliminary Report	177
Phillips, A.	Learning and Collaborating for Adult Literacy Education	183
Raditloaneng, W.	Adult Education as Vocational Training: The Case of Brigades in Botswana	189
Shafer, D.	Outcomes of Faculty Participation in Distance Education	195
Shin, N. & Schied, F.M.	A Critical Analysis of Adult Learning Theories: What Do We Really Know About Adult Learning?	201
Shuman, C. & Spikes, W. F.	Factors Enhancing Participation in Continuing Professional Education for Social Workers in Rural Locations	207
Siegel, I.	The Relevance of Lindeman's (1926) *The Meaning of Adult Education* to Adult Educators in 21st Century	213
Stringer, S. & Thomson, J.	An Applied Approach to Public Education and Outreach: Meeting Criteria for Local Media	221
Sullivan, M. A.	One of the Boys? Women's Experiences in Male-Dominated Vocational-Technical Majors	227
Thompson, M & Askov, E.	Penn State's Master's Degree in Adult Education Online Emerging Research Questions in Teaching for the World Campus	233
Vasily, L. & Steele, V.	Perspectives on a Community Development Approach to Adult Literacy Education in New York State	239
Wagner, D. & Flannery, D.	The Determination of Factors Affecting User Acceptance of a Computer-Based Training Support Tool in the Workplace	245
Weirauch, D.	Assessing and Transforming Learning in Adult Students in Teacher Education Programs Using the Process of Concept Mapping	251
Williams, S. W.	Do We Practice What We Preach? An Examination of the Philosophical Orientation and Practice of Adult Educators Who Deliver Web-Based Instruction	257
Wilson, A.	Place, Power, and Identity in Continuing Professional Education	263

Table of Contents (Continued)

Wise, M.	Learning to Live Beyond a Heart Attack: An Interpretive Case Study of Individuals' Experiences with an On-Line Heart Disease Education Program	269

Refereed Symposia

Boucouvalas, M., McCabe, R., Thongsukmag, J. & Bhumibhanit, V.	Building Upon the UNESCO Recommendations for the New Millennium-Learning to Live Together: A Symposium of Perspectives	277
King, K. P., Tiago, A. & Lawler, P.	The Digital Divide: What Does It Mean for Adult Education?	285
Kuhne, G.	Pennsylvania Action Research Network (PAARN): Synopsis of Highlights of Findings from Five Years of Practitioner Research in Pennsylvania	291

Refereed Roundtable Summaries

Bell, B & Mcguire, P.	Assessing Student Progress toward the EFF Standards: Issues and Lessons to Date	299
Burger, B.	The Shell Model of Adult Education	303
Carkhuff, M.	The Road Less Traveled: Learners' Perspectives in a Cross-Functional Work Group	305
Carman, P. & Watson, H.	Framework for Work-Based Foundation Skills	307
Childers, J., Azhar, T. & Williams, J.	Needs Assessment and Evaluation: Are We Practicing What We Preach?	309
Clark, S.	Strategies for Senior Learners	311
Curry, R., Liao, S., Outlaw, G., & Woodhouse, J	Learning at the Edge of Social Movements for Cultural and Ecological Sustainability	313
DeBlasio, R.	Facilitation as a Needs Assessment Tool for Building an Effective Knowledge Sharing Network for Small Manufacturers	315

Table of Contents (Continued)

Eberly, D. L.	Development of a Valid Job-Relevant Field Training Officer Program Through Job Task Analysis and the Application of Social Learning Theory	317
Fontenot, A.	Exploring Multicultural and Gender Issues: Andragogy in Welfare-to-Work Programs	319
Humbert, T. K.	Developing Critical Thinking Skills within an Associate Degree Program: Can It Be Accomplished?	321
King, C. B.	Opening the Mind: Fundamental Attitudes and the Interior Structure of Openness	323
London, P. A.	The Power of Incidental Learning: Girlhood to Womanhood	325
McNally, P.	The McNally-Killion Learning Organization Model: A Case Study in Managing Change	329
Outlaw, G. & Stanley, C.	Roots and Culture as Transformation in Adult Education	331
Price, M.	Barriers to Continuing Education Among Ministers in the Christian Church (Disciples of Christ) in North Carolina: Myths, Realties, Insights, and Strategies	333
Rogers, E. E.	Politics: Theorizing the Afritics of African American Women Political Leaders	335
Smith, J.& Kalinosky, K.	Moving Towards a Symbiotic Relationship Between Adult Learning Theory and Practice	337
Snider, S.	Developing Goal-Setting Strategies for Prospective Students Of Greater Pittsburgh Literacy Council	339
Stanley, C.	An Opportunity for Empowerment: Belize Women's Migration Experiences from Central America	341
Yarosz, D.J.	Doorway to Hope: Empowering the Homeless through the Application of the Principles of Adult Education.	343

Supplemental Table of Contents by Topic 345

ER- AERC

REFEREED PAPERS

Eastern Regional
Adult Education Research Conference

March 16-18, 2000

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

THE ADULT LITERACY CLASSROOM AS A SOCIAL SYSTEM

Hal Beder

ABSTRACT

This presentation reports the results of a study of adult literacy education classroom behavior in which twenty adult literacy classes were observed twice in seven states. For each observed class, teachers were interviewed. Students were interviewed when possible. It was found that teachers control instruction in adult literacy classes and that the predominant mode of instruction was a teacher-directed lesson followed by question and answer. Themes deriving from classroom interaction included tardiness; tuning-out; sanctioning; engaging; directing/complying; helping; expressing values attitudes and opinions, and community. Classroom interaction was considerably influenced by teachers goals, perspectives and backgrounds; program configuration and learner characteristics.

INTRODUCTION

In the United States, the federally-funded adult basic education program is the primary mechanism for serving the approximately 40 to 44 million adults (Kirsch, Jungeblut, Jenkins, & Kolstad, 1993) who are in need of basic literacy education. Although from the National Adult Literacy Survey (NALS) and the National Evaluation of the Adult Education Program (NEAEP) we know a great deal about adult literacy education programs and their learners, we know very little about what happens in adult literacy education classrooms. Indeed, a literature search uncovered but one comprehensive study of classroom dynamics (Mezirow, Darkenwald, & Knox, 1975) and that study is over twenty years old.

METHODS

The present study is an analysis of the adult literacy education classroom behavior in which the class is conceived as a social system. Twenty classroom sites were selected to maximize program and learner diversity, and to that end, classes were selected to represent 18 characteristics which previous research had shown to be "shaping variables" of adult literacy instruction (e.g., geographic location, program type, urban/suburban/rural, instructional level of the class, etc.). Classes were selected in seven states. For each class, data were collected on four occasions. First, the class was observed by a trained observer. Then the teacher was interviewed. A second observation followed and finally students were interviewed when possible. The teacher interview was open-ended and was focused on the first observation in order to gather data about the teacher's intentions for and perceptions of the class observed. The interview also afforded the observer an opportunity to discuss with the teacher any episodes in the observation that needed clarification in respect to their meaning or purpose. After each data collection, detailed and comprehensive field notes were completed. All interviews were recorded and transcribed.

Data were analyzed using a grounded theory methodology. First, after thoroughly studying the over seventy sets of field notes which were 15 to 20 pages in length, a preliminary set of thematic categories was identified by the researchers. These categories were primarily descriptive of classroom dynamics and interactions. Then the field notes were entered into the NUDIST computer program for qualitative analysis. Starting with the preliminary categories, three researchers then coded the data and in the process identified new themes and refined and elaborated the initial themes. Periodically the coding of the three analysts was merged using the QSR Merge Computer Program and categories were collapsed, renamed, and expanded as necessary. To further refine the analysis, word searches were conducted and the results coded and analyzed.

A limitation of grounded theory analysis is that there is a tendency for conceptual themes to become dis-embedded from context. To rectify this problem, and to further sensitize readers to the dynamics of adult literacy classrooms, six case studies were prepared of classrooms that represented a wide range of the classes studied.

FINDINGS

THE STRUCTURE AND CONTENT OF INSTRUCTION

Classroom behavior is greatly influenced by the teacher. In virtually all the classes we studied the teacher selected the content and guided the process of formal instruction. In some cases learners were given limited choice, such as in the selection of one activity over another, but these choices were almost universally at teachers' discretion. To be sure teachers tried to make content relevant to learners. Yet while relevance was something that concerned almost all teachers, decisions of relevance were by and large based on teachers' perceptions of what was relevant. In one class where most students were foreign born, the teacher selected immigration as the class theme and reading and writing activities revolved around this theme. In another multi-ethnic class, the teacher directed learners to write about major cultural celebrations in their countries of origin. Many teachers used commercially prepared materials which were chosen at least partially for their perceived relevance. In several GED preparation classes, teachers developed lessons that focused on GED test content. Teachers also controlled time and space. They determined when class would begin and end, furniture arrangements, and how long classroom activities would last.

Learners almost universally accepted the preeminence of the teachers' role as being legitimate. When teachers directed an activity, there was nearly universal compliance, sometimes after some good-natured grumbling over less popular activities. In terms of what is taught and how, adult literacy education looks very much elementary and secondary education. This is so because teachers' and learners' role behavior is deeply influenced by their socialization in elementary and secondary education. Nearly all the teachers we encountered had been trained as elementary or secondary education teachers and the great majority had experience in the public schools. Most learners had also been socialized in this context at least up until the time they dropped out.

CLASSROOM INTERACTIONS

Norms governing classroom interaction differed in some respects from what one might expect in an elementary or secondary education classroom. In most classes there were learners who arrived up to 45 minutes late. They were rarely sanctioned negatively and usually fit into class with minimal acknowledgement or class disruption. In many classes there were students who tuned out for periods by leaving class for self-determined breaks, by staring out into space, by putting their heads down on the desk or table, by engaging in personal conversations not related to class and even by sleeping. This behavior was seldom sanctioned negatively by the teacher or other students. As mentioned earlier, after tuning-out, learners usually re-engaged. Teachers tended to attribute tuning out to learner fatigue, although observers comments suggested that boredom was sometimes a factor. Learners usually chose where they would sit and cliques based on age, gender or ethnicity were evident in most seating selections.

The most common pattern of teachers' instructional behavior was an activity followed by questioning and answering. The teacher, for example, would ask learners to read and would then ask questions to determine if they had comprehended. Similar patterns were common for writing, math and GED subjects. Except when learners were directed to work in small groups or pairs, dialog between the teacher and individual students predominated. The teacher would ask a question, an individual student would respond--either voluntarily or by being called upon--and a new question would be posed. Typically questions were designed to elicit a factual response rather than students' opinions. Rarely did a question and answer episode open into to a collective discussion where students interacted with each other as well as with the teacher.

Norms regarding helping and correcting varied among classes. In an extreme case, a class that was highly individualized, the teacher believed that only she should correct and help. She moved from student to student, usually in the order that students arrived, correcting their individualized work and delivering a mini-lesson based on their errors. Each of these sessions lasted about 20 minutes, and learners who had completed their work had to wait for the teacher's attention before they were permitted to move on. In the majority of classes learners corrected and helped each other. In many cases teachers directed learners to work in pairs or small groups where they corrected each others' work and helped each other. This was most common in math, in which case learners worked on math problems together, and in writing where learners edited each others work. In some classes students helping students was very common and natural. A student would write a sentence on the board, for example, and another student would correct it before the teacher had the opportunity or a learner would ask another learner for help on a math problem because the teacher was busy elsewhere.

In nearly every case, teachers indicated that they were striving to create a nurturing, trusting classroom atmosphere and this was evident in observation. Teachers verbally rewarded learners when they were correct and virtually never took a punishing stance when learners made mistakes. Teachers attempted to reduce the social distance between themselves and learners through humor and by brief personal accounts of their likes and dislikes and personal out-of-class activities. In classrooms that were used exclusively for adult education, there was typically a bulletin board with student work displayed and other adult symbols. In such classrooms, students usually sat at tables or u-shaped arrangements rather than in rows.

SHAPING FACTORS

Just as the structure and content of instruction and classroom interaction shapes what and how learners learn, classroom behavior is in turn is shaped by factors internal and external to the classroom. Because teachers control instruction, their perspectives and backgrounds had a powerful influence on the classroom. When teachers were asked about what they intended to achieve in classes we observed, "to meet learners' needs" was the most common response followed by such things as to teach life skills, create a positive learning atmosphere and to engage and interest learners. These commonly expressed goals all focus on helping learners in ways that go considerably beyond the mere teaching of reading, writing and mathematics. Teachers say they are concerned with helping: helping learners to grow and develop, helping learners to become successful. In this respect, teachers clearly intend to act in learner centered ways. Yet an analysis of instructional structure and content leads to the conclusion that adult literacy education is primarily teacher directed. Teachers select materials, create and deliver lessons, and direct learners to engage in activities. Learners almost always comply. There seems to be a contradiction here. If teachers intend to be learner centered, and if they control the classroom, how can a teacher-directed rather than a learner-centered classroom result?

We conclude that there are two intersecting meaning structures at work among teachers. On one hand, teachers are socialized to be teacher directed. That is what they know how to do. That is how they believe teachers are supposed to act. That is what their learners expect. That is what the system at large expects. For adult literacy education teachers, part of the very meaning of being a teacher has to do with being teacher-directed and that meaning is so deeply instilled that many teachers may not be cognizant of it. On the other hand, the meaning of being a teacher has a duality to it; in their attitudes, beliefs and aspirations for their teaching, teachers are decidedly learner centered. What results is a hybrid. While the conduct of the adult literacy class is primarily teacher-directed for all the reasons we have outlined, in their personal, affective relationships and interactions with learners, teachers behave in caring, supportive "learner centered" ways. In this sense, being learner centered is not a teaching technology or teaching methodology; it is a set of values that guide teacher-learner interactions.

The very powerful shaping factor is program configuration, defined as how the program is organized in respect to such factors and the number of hours per week classes meet, continuous or closed enrollment, and mixed or homogeneous learner skill levels. Hours of instruction per week varied from six to over 30. In some cases learners who were essentially illiterate were assigned to the same class as learners who were ready to pass the GED, while in others learners were at approximately at the same skill level. In continuous enrollment classes, students could enroll at any time and there was a constant flow of new learners, while in closed enrollment classes learners entered as a cohort and remained a cohort.

Together, these three components of program configuration influenced the ability of the class to function as an effective social system. When classes met only several hours a week, it was more difficult for shared meanings to develop regarding the purpose of activities and for rapport to develop between teachers and students and among students. More importantly, when the same learners were not present each week due to attrition and continuous enrollment, learners were less able to learn classroom routine and the meanings associated with classroom exercises and social interactions. Comparing stable classes that met 20 or more hours a week or more and had stable enrollments to less stable classes, in stable classes teachers seemed to attempt activities that were more complex and to conduct them more successfully. Learners were adept at helping each other and there was a smoother transition from activity to activity. More importantly, much more was accomplished in a given hour of instruction.

Mixed levels caused problems for teachers, especially if the ranges in skill level were substantial. Faced with this situation, teachers had three choices. They could teach to the entire class, in which case the activities were either too difficult or too easy for some learners. Some tuning out behavior was due to the boredom and/or frustration this sometimes caused for learners. Alternatively, they could use highly individualized instruction in which learners worked on their own with materials selected at their skill level. These materials were usually kept in portfolios of folders. Although learners worked at an appropriate skill level in such classes, there was minimal social interaction among learners and few thematic discussions. Finally, teachers could group learners according to level, have them work individually or collaboratively on activities, and rotate from group to group to help and correct. This alternative was only possible when there a sufficient number of learners to establish groups and it presented difficult classroom arrangement problems for teachers. Some teachers adopted an eclectic approach in which learners worked individually part of the time but were taught as a group when the material warranted.

Major changes in enrollment, student flow, and skill levels reeked havoc in two of the 20 sites. One class was a family literacy class originally comprised of welfare mothers whose children were in the early childhood component. Welfare reform had decimated the population of welfare learners, and to maintain class numbers, community members were invited to enroll. Previously, the commonality associated with gender and parenthood, and well as participation in child-parent activities, had caused the class to bond, but when the commonality disappeared, the class ceased to function well as a social system and the teacher never adapted. In a GED preparation class, a small class of learners who paid a fee to enroll was changed the next semester to a large open-enrollment, mixed-level class into which the small class was merged. Although the teacher was reluctant to short-change her the original group of learners by starting at the beginning, she was faced with many new students with low skills. At the time of the second observation, the teacher used the same activities that had previously worked successfully with the small class, but these activities were now either too difficult or misunderstood by many new learners. The teacher, who sensed this from new learners' non-responses to her questioning and answering, became exasperated and responded with sarcasm directed towards learners.

Student characteristics such as age, ethnicity and gender were another shaping factor. In regard to age, in two classes there were a number of teenage dropouts who disrupted the class with joking behavior and loud personal conversations. In two classes of mixed racial composition there were mild inter-racial confrontations. In another class of primarily foreign-born, activities failed because the learners did not understand the teacher's directions. On the positive side, in a class of female welfare recipients, learners were able to discuss gender issues a personal level, something that probably would have been impossible had men been present, and a class of mixed ethnicity used immigration as a unifying theme for reading and writing.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

When learners and teachers share meanings regarding classroom activities and the goals of instruction, and when classes are stable in respect to enrollment so that these shared meanings can develop, adult literacy education classes function as an effective social system directed toward learning. This finding suggests that policy makers should consider classroom stability to be a major factor contributing to instructional success. Continuous enrollment, classes that meet but several hours a week and mixed enrollments are practices that should be discouraged.

Although teachers strive to create a trustful, non-threatening learning environment, and to make the content of instruction relevant to learners, they control the process and content of instruction. The centrality of the teacher suggests that teacher competence is critical for instructional success. Accordingly, staff development should be expanded in both quantity and quality and access to it should be improved.

REFERENCES

Kirsch, I. S., Jungeblut, A., Jenkins, L., & Kolstad, A. (1993). *Adult literacy in America: A first look at the National Adult Literacy Survey.* Washington, DC: The United States Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement.

Mezirow, J., Darkenwald, G., & Knox, A., (1975). *Last gamble on education.* Washington, DC: Adult Education Association of the U.S.A.

Hal Beder, Professor, Rutgers University, Graduate School of Education, 10 Seminary Place, New Brunswick, NJ 08901. hbeder@rci.rutgers.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State University, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

"I'VE COME A LONG WAY:"
A REPORT ON A STUDY OF OUTCOMES OF ADULT LITERACY PROGRAMS

Mary Beth Bingman
Olga Ebert

ABSTRACT

This study is based on life history interviews with ten literacy students. It examines how adults describe the impacts of participation in adult literacy classes on their lives, and how these impacts compare with existing performance measures. The ten participants told us about growing up, their families, their social and civic activities, and their work. Analyzing their interviews, we discovered challenges to the assumptions underlying common beliefs about literacy students. All participants have worked in a variety of jobs. They reported having used a variety of literacy practices in their lives both before and after their participation in adult education programs. Although for many of them the circumstances have been hard, almost all participants exhibited strategies of resilience and self-efficacy. Findings in regard to impacts from participation include: changes in literacy practices in different areas of everyday life and changes in feelings about themselves including recognizing that one is not alone in a situation, gaining the confidence to speak, and pride in one's accomplishment. Such outcomes are not commonly measured by current assessment systems. To give programs credit for these outcomes, additional measures and ways of documenting them need to be developed.

INTRODUCTION AND METHODOLOGY

The Learner-Identified Outcomes study (Bingman, Ebert, & Smith, in press) was conducted to obtain adult learners' perspectives about outcomes of their participation in literacy programs. Federal and state agencies usually evaluate the effectiveness of adult literacy programs using such indicators as learners' progress in skills levels as measured by standardized tests of basic skills, passing the GED (General Educational Development) tests, or their finding and retaining unsubsidized employment. In our study we wanted to hear from learners themselves about the differences participation made in their lives.

This study followed an earlier quantitative longitudinal study of adult literacy participants in Tennessee (Bingman, Ebert, & Smith, in press; Merrifield, Smith, Rea, & Crosse; 1994; Merrifield, Smith, Rea, & Shriver, 1993). In that study (1991-1995), 450 people in three cohorts (1992, 1993, and 1994) were interviewed when they enrolled in adult literacy programs at yearly intervals for three years.

The current qualitative study complements the statistical findings of the longitudinal study. Ten participants were identified from the 139 longitudinal study subjects who had a follow-up interview in 1995. Each of them had at least 80 hours of adult literacy instruction. We selected a sample of six women and four men, six European Americans and four African Americans based on the demographics of students in Tennessee Adult Basic Education programs. Both urban and rural programs and each of the three regions of the state were represented. One of the participants had graduated from high school and two have eventually passed the GED test. The urban participants included Bert, age 28; Elizabeth, age 65; Laura, age 47; and June age 32. Participants from small towns or rural communities included Suzanne, age 32; Marvin, age 53; Harry, age 74; Ruth, age 45; Kris, age 30; and Will, age 53. (All names have been changed).

The study used life history narratives, which are rich sources of individual meanings and help illustrate the system level constraints influencing people's lives (Bloom & Munro, 1995). We conducted two semi-structured life history interviews with the participants, usually in their homes. We were interested in what happened in participants' work, family, and social lives before, during, and after participation in literacy programs. The transcripts of these interviews were analyzed using an iterative inductive approach. Multiple readings and coding, both manual and using NUD*IST qualitative research software enabled us to arrive at findings that are discussed below. From the data we identified several broad categories that structure the narratives of the participants: their everyday life experiences and relationships; their work, paid and unpaid; and their experiences in adult education programs. Cutting across these categories are several themes including the participants' sense of self and the impacts of their adult education experiences on their lives. Literacy practices were a particular focus of interview analysis.

FINDINGS

In this study, we wanted to find out more about the lives of ten adult learners and whether participation in ABE programs made any difference in the ways they perceived themselves and their everyday activities. Apart from discovering the changes participation in literacy programs has made in various areas of their work, family, and social lives, we also discovered challenges to the assumptions underlying common beliefs about adult literacy students.

ORDINARY LIVES: TENNESSEE ADULT LITERACY LEARNERS

Although multiple risk factors had been present in participants' lives (growing up in conditions of poverty and/or racial discriminations, learning disabilities, and single parenthood), many of them were able to draw upon other sources of resilience to become productive workers, adult learners, parents who value their children's education, and involved community members. The majority of them described to us their present lives as quite ordinary in most ways. They have had jobs, raised children, go shopping, have hobbies, and are concerned about their neighbors and communities. Their literacy skills and/or educational opportunities have been limited, but they are not people who are "other" than most Tennesseans (Stuart & Thompson, 1995).

Everyday Life

The childhood experiences described by participants were a mix of hard times and ordinary life issues. Of the ten participants, six grew up in rural areas, working on farms even as children. They were usually from big families. Four of the older participants left school to go to work to help support their families. The schooling of the three older African Americans was in the segregated south. Elizabeth told us, "back then, if you was able to pick cotton and chop, when summertime come, whenever cotton chopping time come, school would shut down and we would have to go to the field." Ruth, Suzanne, and Kris left school because they felt that they weren't learning, weren't being taught. June was pregnant is the tenth grade and stopped school, and Bert had problems with other students and left school.

While no one reported income above the Tennessee median ($26,990 in1993), only Laura, Kris, and Suzanne spoke of financial problems. For the rest, there is either sufficient income or an ability to adjust to what income is available. Elizabeth, Harry, and June all talked about living within their means. Elizabeth: "I'm doing fine. Don't take too much for me. I just make my [Social Security] check do, what I get. . . . You can live off just what God blessed you with, you'll be able to make it."

Although for the most part these people are and have been self-supporting and have raised families, they do say that their lives have been "hard." The younger participants' financial problems are compounded by costs born disproportionately by the poor--higher rent-to-own prices because they have no credit, paying money order fees when they don't have a checking account, being unable to pay the "up front" lawyer's fees that might enable them to address financial wrongs. These lives may be ordinary, but are not easy.

Family activities and work fill much of the everyday lives of the participants in this study. But all had other activities as well. Six out of ten participants attend church regularly, and four are actively involved in church activities. Several mentioned other forms of community involvement: foster parenting; giving speeches at local functions about the importance of education; informal recruiting for ABE programs; neighborhood watches. The leisure activities people mentioned doing in their free time include: shopping, visiting family, outdoors and entertainment; on-line chat groups. Their hobbies included crafts, collecting, music, working on cars. Most of them also read the Bible, newspapers, romances, and magazines.

Work

All participants have worked for pay in a variety of jobs in manufacturing, construction, food processing, and service. The older participants tended to have worked many years at the same place. Several talked of how they had learned and performed their jobs.

Much of what people talked to us about centered on their work lives. All of them had worked at least two jobs; five had worked many (12-29) years at one job. Three are now retired; the rest are either working (4) or hoping to work (3). The three who are hoping to work all have health problems that limit what they are able to do. For the three older men, work has been a source of pride and satisfaction. Harry talked about being a good worker and being called back three times after he retired to help train others. Marvin was able to learn "hands on" to be a mechanic and over-the-road truck driver for a local tractor firm: "Every morning I got up, I wanted to work." He left the job when his health made it impossible to continue to drive trucks and his lack of education meant he could not work as a supervisor.

For the women work has been more a necessity than a pleasure. They can imagine and hope for work that pays well and that they enjoy, but have jobs washing dishes, housekeeping or processing chickens. Ruth told of being so cold from her job at a chicken plant that she is unable to go out again to class in the winter. Laura described cleaning in dorms after a weekend parties and working in jobs where her paycheck "wasn't right." Suzanne is an the exception among the women, having had a variety of factory jobs that she has enjoyed. And Kris liked being the assistant manager at a pizza restaurant but was forced to quit due to health problems.

Only Marvin and Laura spoke of being limited by lack of literacy skills in their employment, Marvin because he could not become a supervisor and Laura due to her difficulties spelling. In general, people are able to do their jobs, reading and writing the texts they encounter, or in Marvin's case finding ways to work around it. Will described using blueprints and keeping his own notebook of specifications in his job building customized bus interiors. Marvin learned to read a map and match the road signs to the names on the map. Ruth and Elizabeth said they had no reading or writing in their jobs.

But lack of credentials, lack of a high school or GED diploma, has been a barrier to jobs for Ruth and Will and a barrier to additional training for Kris and Bert. Harry and Marvin doubt they could get the jobs they had if they were entering the job market today. Elizabeth urged her daughters to finish school so they wouldn't have to work as hard as she had, "doing everything" in a neighborhood restaurant. This group believes that regardless of the skills needed for a job--and some talked about increasing skill levels--educational credentials are necessary to get good jobs. Speaking of education, Elizabeth told us: "It's better to have it and don't need it than need it and don't have it. And more than likely you're gonna need it."

Valuing Education

All of the participants talked about how important education is in contemporary life. Although they did not have a chance to finish high school, they were making an effort to further their education as adults. Two of the younger participants had plans to go to college. Nine of the participants had children, and all reported being involved in their children's education. Of their 18 adult children, all but one completed high school and eight had attended college. We found that many of the participants were involved in their children's schooling: helping them with homework, discussing their progress with teachers, working with schools to find accommodations for children's physical or learning disabilities.

Strong Sense of Self

We discovered that, in terms of their sense of self and contrary to the often-expected effect of limited literacy and growing up in poverty, almost all participants exhibited strategies of resilience and self-efficacy. Using Mager's (1992) model of effects of self-efficacy on people's behavior, we were able to find the model's components in participants' perceptions of themselves: choice behavior, motivation, perseverance, facilitative thought patterns, and little vulnerability to stress and depression. To identify the sources of resilience in participants' lives, we turned to Vaillant's (1994) theory. Many of the sources of resilience were evident in participants' stories: presence of protective factors; social supports; cognitive strategies (attributional style and temperament); self-esteem and self-efficacy, and ego mechanisms of defense (altruism, suppression or "wise stoicism," anticipation or "realistic and affect-laden planning for future discomfort," and humor.) Even though they had many risk factors in their lives, study participants seem to have been able to draw on other sources to develop resilience.

CHANGES IN ADULTS' LIVES AFTER PARTICIPATION IN LITERACY PROGRAMS

The ten adults told us that there were some changes in their lives that they believed were related to their participation in literacy programs. Our findings in regard to these outcomes include: changes in literacy practices in different areas of everyday life; changes in feelings about themselves including recognizing that one is not alone in a situation, gaining the confidence to speak, and pride in one's accomplishment and/or recognition.

Adult Education Experiences

From their discussions of their adult education experiences we heard of positive experiences in fairly traditional skill-based classes and of appreciation of teachers' support and individual attention. A good teacher was seen by participants as understanding, patient, and committed to students' learning. Instructional methods described by the participants included: working on computers, on board, with newspapers, with audiotapes, and in workbooks (Laubach books were mentioned once). Both one-to-one tutoring and class discussions were mentioned.

Among the new things that participants have reported learning in literacy programs were:
- How to write an essay
- Standard writing format (paragraphs and margins)
- How to use a dictionary
- Fractions
- How to read maps
- How to break the words into syllables to read better
- How to sound words out for spelling and reading
- Compound words
- History of Native Americans and African Americans, and about people form other cultures
- How to write checks and money orders
- How to count money better

Changes in Literacy Practices

Eight out of ten participants talked about how these new and/or improved skills led to new or expanded literacy practices in their lives. Changes in literacy practices included six people who reported more reading of newspapers, the Bible, other books, and to their children. Seven reported new literacy practices in their everyday lives including opening a checking account, programming a remote control, using a map in a search for a new apartment, using measurement at work, being better able to fill out job reports. Several people described new understanding and awareness of history and national and world events. While in no instance were these reported as life-changing outcomes, people did talk about these changed skills and practices and new knowledge as improvements in their lives. The impacts were significant, particularly for those who were the most limited readers. "Life's brighter when you learn how to read," says Marvin.

Changes in Sense of Self

This group also talked about changes in their sense of themselves. These changes included pride in their accomplishments. Harry spoke about passing the GED test: "It built my ego, and I've had a lot of praises and [they] even made a write-up with me in the paper." For some, like Elizabeth, there was a new sense of efficacy: "I feel better about myself since I learned how to read better. I feel like I'm somebody. You feel better about yourself when you learn how to do a lot of things for yourself, you know." Social situations were made easier for Marvin: "I've got a lot of friends right now that we sit down and we talk, and hey, I done looked in the paper and see the same thing that he sees." Ruth said she learned to speak her opinion, for instance when her supervisor changed her scheduled Christmas week off: "So I spoke up. I said, 'No, it isn't right. I want my vacation.' And I got it." It appears to us that most of these people had a positive sense of self before participating in adult literacy programs. But their participation did lead to changes in what they felt able to do, or as one of them put it, to feeling "activated."

Literacy uses and sense of self often seemed to intersect. So, for example, Marvin had always met with his friends and talked about events; but now he can use the knowledge that he has gained from reading the newspapers in these conversations. It is not that Marvin "had low self-esteem" before; but now he feels differently because of his improved literacy abilities. He has read the paper that his friends have read, "so we can discuss this matter."

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

We have drawn two main conclusions from this study. First, we found the adults in this study were for the most part, resilient, self-reliant people who valued education and fostered their children's education. They did not fit the image of adult literacy students often found in the popular media and in the discourse of the adult education field as people "incapable of helping themselves" who can be saved by enrolling in a literacy course (Quigley, 1997, p. 35). They valued their literacy class participation, but did not find their lives transformed by it. The lives of the people in this study serve as a reminder to those writing about and legislating for adult literacy learners to look carefully at the reality of peoples' needs rather than assuming only deficits to be corrected.

Second, we found that the outcomes of literacy program participation in learners' lives are diverse, often complex, and determined by individuals' life situations. The meaning of a particular outcome is contextual. For example, both Harry and Suzanne passed the GED test, a common outcome measure in ABE. For both, this achievement was a source of satisfaction and pride, but for neither did having a GED have a direct impact on self-sufficiency. Suzanne could not find a better job in her small town, and Harry was already retired. While having the credential may well have long-term impacts for Suzanne, and the accomplishment of this goal may lead to new endeavors for both Harry and Suzanne, the initial achievement had minimal impact. For Elizabeth, gaining the literacy skills and the particular knowledge needed to fill out a money order led to new independence. A seemingly small achievement has had marked impact in her life.

A primary implication of this study is the need for additional ways to determine the outcomes of literacy programs. Current measures including those in the Workforce Investment Act (1998) and the National Reporting System (U.S. Department of Education, Division of Adult Education and Literacy, 1999) do not capture the complexity and diversity of changes that the participants in this study described. Programs are not able to get credit for many of the changes that learners report, because the measures are so narrow. New approaches to performance measurement that take into account the varied needs and accomplishments of adult learners are needed.

REFERENCES

Bingman, M. B., Ebert, O., & Smith, M. (in press). *Changes in learners' lives one year after enrollment in literacy programs: An analysis from the longitudinal study of adult literacy participants in Tennessee.* Cambridge, MA: National Center for the Study of Adult Learning and Literacy.

Bloom, L., & Munro, P. (1995). Conflicts of selves: Nonunitary subjectivity in women administrators' life history narratives. In J. A. Hatch & R. Wisniewski (Eds.), *Life history and narrative* (pp. 99-112). Washington, DC: Falmer Press.

Mager, R. F. (1992, April). No self-efficacy, no performance. *Training*, 32-36

Merrifield J., Smith, M., Rea, K., & Crosse, D. (1994). *Longitudinal study of adult literacy participants in Tennessee: Year Two report.* Knoxville, TN: Center for Literacy Studies.

Merrifield J., Smith, M., Rea, K., & Shriver, T. (1993). *Longitudinal study of adult literacy participants in Tennessee: Year One report.* Knoxville, TN: Center for Literacy Studies.

Quigley, B. A. (1997). *Rethinking literacy education: The critical need for practice-based change.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Stuart, M., & Thompson, A. (1995). Engaging with difference: Education and "other" adults. In M. Stuart & A. Thompson (Eds.), *Engaging with difference: The "other" in adult education.* Leicester, UK: National Institute of Adult Continuing Education.

U.S. Department of Education, Division of Adult Education and Literacy. (1999). *Measures and methods for the National Reporting System for Adult Education.* Washington, DC: Author.

Vaillant, G. (1994). *The wisdom of the ego.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Workforce Investment Act–Title II, Pub. L. No. 105-220. 112 Stat. 936 (1998).

Mary Beth Bingman, Associate Director, and Olga Ebert, Research Associate, Center for Literacy Studies, 600 Henley St., Suite 312, Knoxville, TN 37996-4135

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

DOCUMENTING OUTCOMES FOR LEARNERS AND THEIR COMMUNITIES: AN ACTION RESEARCH PROJECT

Mary Beth Bingman
Rosemarie Mincey

ABSTRACT

This paper describes an action research project in which teams of practitioners from three literacy programs worked with university-based researchers to develop processes to document outcomes of adult learners' participation in adult basic education. The methods they used and the processes they developed are described. Results, intended and unintended, of the action research are discussed and implications considered.

INTRODUCTION

Adult basic education (ABE) programs throughout the United States face increased demands to document the outcomes of their work. While numerous studies over the last 20 years have attempted to document outcomes of literacy education for adult students, most have methodological limitations, and few are widely known among practitioners in the field (Beder, 1999). Policy makers demand to know the "payoff" for investment in adult literacy programs. Programs need more effective ways to document the outcomes of adult learning on the quality of life of learners, communities, and society. Practitioners want to know that their work has impact. Learners want to know how their own investment in learning might be expected to benefit them in the rest of their lives.

Currently, the Workforce Investment Act (1998) requires states to establish performance accountability systems that use a National Reporting System to collect data on educational gains, employment, and secondary credentials (GED or high school). There are, however, many outcomes in learners' lives in addition to those being measured for the WIA core indicators (for example, see Bingman & Ebert, in press). These include changes in what people are able to do in their lives as a result of new skills or credentials as well as changes in their sense of self.

This paper discusses the findings of an action research project entitled Documenting Outcomes for Learners and Their Communities: Developing Accountability at the Local Level conducted by the Center for Literacy Studies (CLS) as part of a partnership with the National Center for the Study of Adult learning and Literacy (NCSALL). This action research project was developed to increase understanding of how programs might identify and document the outcomes of adult education participation in learners' lives, both for local program needs and for purposes of program accountability at every level. The project included three teams of ABE program teachers and administrators and staff from the Center for Literacy Studies at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Each program site had different requirements, but all shared a need to be able to produce documentation for outcome measurement.

ACTION RESEARCH

The teams were creating documentation tools that were new and whose end-results were uncertain, and so a research method was required that would be open enough to allow for change and adaptation. Action research was selected as the research method for the project because it is an emergent and exploratory process, a method of inquiry that allows refinement as the project progresses over time and during the various stages of development. It is a cyclical process that alternates between action and critical reflection. Wadsworth (1998) maintains that action research is inclusive and distinguished from more linear, traditional research decision-making because it develops "more consciously and in relation to more clearly-worked out purposes, and us[es] more appropriate designs and techniques for exploring them. . . . It is action which is researched, changed and re-researched, within the research process by participants...it aims to be active co-research." Stringer (1996) concurs, asserting that the uniqueness and intent of action research is to not only "get the job done," but also to "ensure the well being of everyone involved" (p. 19).

PROJECT SITES

The three project sites are located in the southern Appalachian region of the United States, in the states of Kentucky, Virginia, and Tennessee. This region has been viewed as one of the most geographically, economically, and educationally isolated regions of the U.S. Largely due to economic circumstances, the formal schooling of many inhabitants of the region is interrupted or halted altogether before the completion of high school.

The Knott County Adult Learning Program is located in the coal-mining region of the mountains of eastern Kentucky. The program enrolls 70 students in Adult Basic Education classes and 23 in literacy classes. There are five staff instructors, three for GED, and two for literacy. Classes are offered six hours a day. Young single mothers who need more than basic skills instruction make up the majority of student population of the program.

The Mount Rogers Regional Adult Learning program is located in rural southwestern Virginia, and serves a seven county area. The Mount Rogers program has 1200-1500 students per year, in ESL, ABE, and workplace classes. The program also works with community colleges to help prepare people without high school diplomas and also with several correctional facilities (for inmates and individuals on probation). Work is also conducted with the Bristol housing authority and the Department of Transportation. There are about 40 part-time teachers, and two full-time administrators. Class schedules vary, but most meet for a few hours once or twice a week.

While both the Knott County and Mt. Rogers programs serve rural areas, the Knox County Adult Learning Program (KCALP) is located in an urban area, in downtown Knoxville, Tennessee. Both day and evening classes are offered in the Level I (beginning literacy) program. There are currently seven ABE instructors for various levels and subjects, and about 50 volunteers. Learners generally attend classes two to four times weekly. The program has been involved in an ambitious planning and quality improvement program.

THE PROJECT

The action research was carried out by each team separately, but following a similar format. Two regional team meetings were also held, one in April 1999 and the other in November 1999. In the early part of the project the teams met with CLS/ NCSALL researchers every two or three weeks, and took part in similar exercises that helped clarify issues and build the knowledge base of all involved. The activities that proved most useful were completing a Documentation Matrix and developing a program logic model eventually called the Inputs to Impacts Grid.

To complete the Documentation Matrix, each team gathered the various forms and assessments used for documentation in their programs and analyzed each by answering the questions such as who completed the form, how often, who received it, how was the information used. Completing the matrix enabled the teams to identify how they were collecting and using information and instances in which they were not. For example there was often duplication of student demographic information, but no program had an effective way of documenting the outcomes in learners' lives outside the program.

The Inputs to Impacts Grid was developed, first with the Knox County team, to help the team (and facilitators) clarify what was meant by the terms " input, output, outcomes, impact." The team determined that these applied somewhat differently to students and programs and developed a list for each. These lists made clear the process that programs engage in as they work with students to achieve their goals -- the hoped for outcomes. The Kentucky and Virginia programs added their examples to the model and used the model as they developed their documentation processes.

After several meetings doing orientation activities, the teams began to meet on their own and with their students to develop and test documentation processes. This work and the results are described in the next section. The research of each team was impacted by various factors. The Workforce Investment Act requirements as implemented under various state plans were (and will continue to be) a factor for all three programs. However, because Virginia was in the process of putting into place a process called Quality Works that implements the WIA requirements, the team from Mt. Rogers addressed government requirements most directly in their work. The Kentucky and Tennessee teams were aware of the coming changes, but did not deal with them as directly as Virginia. The Tennessee team viewed the action research project as part of their ongoing process of program planning and improvement based on the Malcolm Baldrige Education Criteria for Performance Excellence, a business performance quality/program improvement framework adapted for use in educational organizations.

All three teams utilized the Equipped for the Future (EFF) framework to some extent. EFF is a national standards-based system reform initiative sponsored by the National Institute for Literacy and provides a common framework for defining, tracking, and reporting results to policymakers, as well as to students and their local programs. Developed through a multi-year field-based research process, the EFF framework consists of:

- four purposes for learning, defined originally by adult learners and validated by a wide range of adults
- three "maps" that define successful performance of the roles of worker, citizen, and family member
- thirteen activities that are common across these three roles
- sixteen skill standards, derived from the role maps, which provide specific and measurable statements of what adults need to know and be able to do, clustered in four categories: communications skills, interpersonal skills, decision-making skills, and lifelong learning skills.

The Virginia team reviewed the EFF framework and used the roles as they developed their outcomes list. The Kentucky team used the framework to identify the Common Activity that most of their students wanted to address. The Tennessee team had been an EFF development site and had adopted EFF as the "centerpiece" of their program. EFF now structures their instructional work and frames their documentation processes.

THE DOCUMENTATION PROCESSES

The primary goal of this project was the development of outcomes documentation processes. Each team approached this differently, based on their different program needs. And each program developed a different process.

KENTUCKY

The five Kentucky team members worked together in one community adult learning cente. Ttheir students included many women who were part of a welfare-to-work project. The team was intrigued by the EFF framework and saw it as a way to integrate some of the life issues their students were facing with the academic skills that were the focus of the program. They discussed the EFF role maps with learners and eventually the group (staff and learners) determined that the parent role was the one they all shared. The learners listed areas of concern and activities on parenting issues that were of interest. The action research team sorted this list and identified an overall goal to be a better parent and a subgoal that matched one of the EFF Common Activities: "supports and encourages child's education." They used the Inputs to Impacts grid to analyze the activity and determined that they would focus on reading to children as an activity to support children's education and that they would have parents document this on a weekly calendar.

Throughout the summer a group of parents read to their children and recorded what they read and the amount of time on a calendar. Ten students participated, and six of them advanced to another reading level on the standardized test administered at the end of the summer. The Kentucky team found that adult learners' self-confidence increased, family relationships improved, and learners' desire for their children to be readers has increased.

After the summer reading program ended, the team met with the parents and found the parents were enthusiastic about focusing on their children's education. They wanted to continue to encourage their children's reading and had ideas about how to do so. The staff designed a new form on which parents were asked to record instances of reading to their children, helping with homework, school attendance, children's use of the public library, and meeting with their children's teachers. The staff planned to collect these forms monthly and record the data in a computer database. This effort was not as successful as the summer reading program. The staff thought that the form was too complicated and not relevant to everyone. They revised the form, scheduled more parent meetings, and loaned parents cameras to use as another way to document educational activities at home. The team plans to continue the documentation effort for the rest of the school year. With parents' cooperation, they hope to have access to children's school records and use the data to document impacts for children as well as parents' activities.

VIRGINIA

From the beginning of the project, the Virginia team focused on connecting their action research work developing outcomes documentation with their efforts to develop a process for reporting Quality Works data to the state. They reviewed Virginia state documentation requirements and the forms they had been using locally and then developed a form to be used at intake to collect the information required by the state. This included demographic information, the source of the student's information about the program, reasons for enrolling, the student's goals, test scores, and other information. They also added a list of "learner achievements," based on a short checklist of personal, social, and academic learning skills. These were chosen as a way to begin to document more than test scores. Some were outcomes (e.g., "helped child with homework") and some were classroom activities (e.g., "worked on assigned tasks"). After discussion and several revisions, the team decided to move their outcomes list to a separate document.

The team had decided that using activity-based documentation such as story circles and stem sentences that was tried out early in the project was too time intensive. Instead they developed a checklist using some of the items from their "learner achievement" list. They first conceived of the checklist as an exit instrument, a kind of supplement to the other reporting form. It was organized around the three EFF roles, plus the category of "self." The original draft had a space to check when something was accomplished and space for comments. Examples include: use library, ask for directions, read help-wanted ads, use a computer, volunteer in child's school, and pay bills. The team decided to add a column to use at intake (for goal setting). The learner could note which items she or he already does and those which would be indicators of progress toward one's goals. The focus would be on items relevant to the student's goals, but other accomplished items could be checked as well. As these are written, they are decontextualized competencies or activities, but could be contextualized by the learner's goals. The team talked about having a space for the goals on the form and also about giving the student a copy of the form as well, both to facilitate documentation and as motivation.

The team took this new form and tried it with several students. They noted student reactions, how long it took, and whether students could give evidence of their accomplishments. They found that most students liked the form even though it took some time to complete and were able to describe their accomplishments. The students added items and suggested language changes. The team found that using the list helped both the teacher and the students think about goals and outcomes. The form was revised to include student suggestions. In its current iteration the form lists forty-one items with three possible responses to each item: currently do (DO), would like to do (SET), and now can do (MET). The form has been used by several teachers who were not part of the team and they have found it useful, and it has been requested for use by the Virginia Department of Human Services office as part of their intake procedure for new clients.

TENNESSEE

KCALP, the Knox County Adult Learning Program, is an urban program operating literacy classes in an adult learning center adn other sites. The program has been an EFF field development site, and a team of four teachers and two administrators/teachers conducted in-class research on the EFF draft standards. The program began to use of EFF as tool for identifying learner goals and learners' plans for achieving goals. The action research team teachers tried various ways of documenting student performance on specific standards: Listen Actively, Take Responsibility for Learning, Use Math Concepts, and Plan. One teacher conducted regular interviews with a few students; another used a teacher log. While the teachers were able to get useful information using these processes, they found the documentation to be too time intensive to be implemented program-wide. They decided to focus on one EFF standard, Learn Independently, and to develop and test processes to document performance on this standard within the program and outcomes in learners' lives outside program.

The process that KCALP developed to document Take Responsibility for Learning (TRL) involves both instruction and documentation of performance. Teachers gave students a pre-survey on TRL, asking them to write briefly on the meaning of the words, why it is important, and how they might use it. A post-survey asks similar questions. For the month between the surveys, teachers talked about TRL using a model story and asking students to read, write about, and discuss the story. Students then were asked to keep a journal of events in their daily lives that indicated they were taking responsibility for learning and report to the teacher. The teachers also kept logs of their observation of TRL in the classroom. The student journals and teacher logs will be analyzed using the EFF standard description for TRL.

CONCLUSIONS

As this paper is being written, the KCALP process is being tested, and the Kentucky and Virginia programs have implemented the processes designed by their teams. Each program team 1) assessed their needs and their existing documentation processes; 2) developed processes to document learner outcomes; 3) tried these out in class to explore their effectiveness; and, 4) when satisfactorily refined, implemented the processes. The project has been successful in creating processes that programs can use to document the outcomes reported by learners. There have been other results as well.

Action research offers possibilities to generate practical, sustainable improvements in program structure and classroom practice. As they participated in this action research, the team members changed their understanding about aspects of their practice. Developing processes that document changes in learners' lives meant talking to learners about topics and at a depth that was new to many team members. They found that they gained in their understanding of their students. The process of identifying desired outcomes lead to increased instructional focus on meeting learner goals and achieving outcomes. Thinking through program processes led to increased appreciation of how different program aspects--goal setting, instruction, outcomes documentation--can be aligned. This was true for the university-based researchers who had approached this problem as primarily one of measurement, as well as for the program teams. For learners, the process of recording outcomes seemed to serve as a motivator.

This action research project has led to increased understanding of how programs might identify and document the outcomes of adult education participation in learners' lives for local program needs. It has not developed processes that are acceptable for purposes of program accountability. While some of what the Virginia team developed will serve as documentation for meeting learner goals, a program performance indicator in Virginia, most of what the teams are documenting will not be reported beyond the program level, at least not at present. The design and use of the kinds of documentation processes developed by this project are valuable to local programs as a tool for both instructional planning and for learner and project assessment. But for the processes to be useful for program accountability on the state or federal level, the processes will need to be standardized and policy makers must be more open to a variety of approaches to performance measurement.

REFERENCES

Beder, H. (1999). *The outcomes and impacts of adult literacy education in the United States.* Cambridge, MA: National Center for the Study of Adult Learning and Literacy.

Bingman, M. B., & Ebert, O. (in press). *"I've come a long way": Learner-identified outcomes of participation in adult literacy programs.* Cambridge, MA: National Center for the Study of Adult Learning and Literacy.

Russell, T. (1995). *Is a course on action research a living contradiction?* [On-line]. Available: http://educ.queensu.ca/~russellt/fall1995/01cntrdt.htm

Stringer, E. (1996). *Action research: A handbook for practitioners.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Wadsworth, Y. (1998). What is participatory action research? (Paper 2) [On-line]. *Action Research International.* Available: http://www.scu.edu.au/schools/sawd/ari/ari-wadsworth.html

Workforce Investment Act. (1998).

Mary Beth Bingman, Associate Director, and Rosemarie Mincey, Research Assistant, Center for Literacy Studies, 600 Henley St., Suite 312, Knoxville, TN 37996-4135

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

STRATEGIES THAT CONTRIBUTE TO NONTRADITIONAL/ ADULT STUDENT DEVELOPMENT AND PERSISTENCE

Sherry Miller Brown

ABSTRACT

Only a few studies have investigated the retention of degree-seeking nontraditional/adult students on campus and still fewer programs exist to aid the development and persistence of these students. This paper presents the latest profiles of nontraditional/adult students, as well as the most current research on their persistence and attrition patterns and then, based on the research, outlines several strategies that could increase their retention.

INTRODUCTION

The fastest growing population on college and university campuses across the United States is the nontraditional/adult student population. These students now make up at least 50% of higher education enrollments in colleges and universities. In fact, recent U. S. Department of Education (1995) statistics indicate that the nontraditional student is rapidly becoming the "new majority" enrolling in post secondary and higher education institutions across America. Coupled with increasing enrollment rates, colleges and universities are confronted with the problem of the rising attrition rate among minorities, women and under-prepared adults. The participation of these students on campus, therefore, has become the focus of a great deal of attention by nontraditional/adult student academics, practitioners and policy makers, particularly as it relates to their retention and persistence in academic degree programs at all levels. This paper has a threefold purpose. First, it will attempt to describe several profiles of the nontraditional/adult students appearing on campus. Second, it will present the results of the latest retention research studies surveying nontraditional/adult student populations and finally it will identify strategies, based on the research, that the author contends could lead to the development and persistence of these students on campus.

NONTRADITIONAL STUDENT PROFILES

Nontraditional/adult students in higher education cannot be considered a homogeneous group. The linear life course--education, work, retirement--is increasingly rare as people change jobs, retrain voluntarily or involuntarily, and enter the workforce at various times. In addition, the changing workplace--by now a familiar litany of economic, demographic, organizational and social changes has created the need to develop lifelong learning programs that meet the needs of learners in a kaleidoscope of contexts.

One of the most frequently cited reasons for returning to school is divorce (Glass & Rose, 1994). In 1970, nine out of every ten American families were headed by two parents (Wilson & Nickerman, 1986), but by 1992 more than 30 percent of families were headed by single parents, 86% of whom were female (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1992). In 1986, almost one-half million single parents were enrolled on campuses in the U. S. Of these, 85% were older than 24; 81% were female; 42% were members of minority groups, and 71% had incomes below $15,000 per year (Apling, 1991). These predominately female students experience both institutional and personal barriers that make their ability to learn and to complete their education more difficult (Glass & Rose, 1994). Institutional barriers may include time limits on obtaining a degree, lack of counseling services, few support groups, and limited child care service. Personal barriers include financial insufficiency, conflicts between home and school roles, lack of time, insecurity and problems of identity resulting from divorce (Lieberman & Vaughn, 1990; Marlow, 1989). The average single-mother student has two children, receives little or no child support, is working part-time or is receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC). Although her decision to return to school is a positive one, her life is held together by the threads of available child care, dependable transportation, and access to health care. Any break in these sources of support threatens her success in the classroom. To add to these dilemmas, recent welfare reform challenges the ability of most single mothers to receive AFDC.

Another trend causing adults to return to campuses in such record numbers is the rapid pace of changes in the workplace. In this era of organizational restructuring and technological change adults can no longer plan on spending their entire working lives in one organization. Life is not going to be a linear rise up the ladder to the top. In fact, some analysts proclaim the "new rules of work"--everyone is self-employed and the concept of "job" is disappearing (Hall & Mirvis, 1995). Mergers, acquisitions, reengineering and downsizing are influencing employment patterns and altering the career directions of many. For example, younger workers, otherwise known as Generation X--the 80 million young men and women born between 1961 and1981--are no longer being advised to think in terms of spending their entire careers in one organization. They must continually update their skills, look ahead to market trends, as well as to the current demands of the workplace, and they must have a plan for enhancing their performance and long-term employability. On the other hand, mid-life and older workers including the Baby Boomers--those 70 million individuals born between 1943 and 1963--must deal with all of the above issues and in addition several other concerns, such as skill obsolescence, age discrimination and lack of experience with current technology. They have to cope with feelings of loss and change, whether their job change is voluntary or involuntary. Johnson (1991) outlined four variables that impact nontraditional/adult student retention which can readily be applied to students arriving on college and university campuses from the younger, midlife and older workforce. These include background characteristics (demographic, educational, social and family history); social/ psychological integration (goal commitment, employment goals, interpersonal relationships with student peers and faculty, etc.); academic/institutional integration (grade performance and GPA, program policies, instructors, student support services, scheduling factors, etc.); and, finally, environmentally based factors such as student's finances, hours of outside employment, family and peer encouragement, peer relationships and family responsibilities.

One other trend affecting the nontraditional/adult student population is the expansion of life choices for older adults. The phenomenon of early retirement, especially among white males, the recognition that many older adults still want to work and longer life spans and better health that makes them still able to work necessitates preparing for the Third Age--that period of life beyond the career job and parenting which can last for some up to 30 years. In fact, Davidson and Gilbert (1993), Kerka (1995), and Marsella and Leong (1995) all suggest the importance of applying adult development theory and adult learning theory, as well as developing different approaches for advising different nontraditional/adult students including older adults.

Needless to say, all of the above phenomena have placed an incredible burden, as well as opportunity, at the doorstep of colleges and universities across the country as they hasten to develop lifelong learning experiences for the plethora of students who are arriving in ever increasing numbers. Not only do degree and non-degree programs need to be developed for these students, but, academics, practitioners and policy makers must take a new and different look at how to attract and retain the students from these different demographic sectors.

RESEARCH FINDINGS RELEVANT TO NONTRADITIONAL/ADULT STUDENT DEVELOPMENT AND PERSISTENCE

In a recent longitudinal study on persistence and degree attainment, findings indicate that nontraditional/adult students are twice as likely (38% versus 16%) to leave school in the first year as their traditional counterparts (Horn & Premo, 1995). While models of retention applied to higher education most often propose that retention is related to how well students are socially and academically integrated into the institution, research into attrition patterns of nontraditional/adult/students indicates that social integration may not play as crucial a role as academic integration. Cleveland-Innis (1994) found academic integration to be a significant variable affecting commitment for the nontraditional student and when comparing this population to the traditional student population hypothesized that the effect of academic integration for nontraditional students was much higher, especially since nontraditional students face so many more handicaps as they counteract the difficulties of inadequate role preparation and role overload. Academic integration includes such variables as degree utility, goal commitment and career decision-making self-efficacy; cumultive grade point average, and institutional commitment (Belchair & Michener, 1997; Cini & Fritz, 1996; Farbaugh-Dorkins, 1991; Horn & Carroll, 1996; Peterson & delMas, 1996; Mercer, 1993; Sandler, 1998).

Degree utility (how valuable or useful the degree is to the student), goal commitment and career decision-making self-efficacy have all been found to have a statistically significant effect on the persistence decisions and behaviors of nontraditional/adult students. In other words, the nontraditional/adult student's ability to persist is dependent upon what Sandler (1998) terms are the student's perception of career management -- the degree of confidence students express about their competency or ability (self-efficacy) to embark upon educational and occupational information-gathering and goal planing activities -- and is essential to understanding why nontraditional/adult students dropout. Evidence of this phenomenon was also pointed out by Peterson and delMas's (1996) research on nontraditional under-prepared college students which indicated that degree utility was effective in helping "at risk" students bridge the gap between the perceived usefulness of any type of postsecondary education and/or degree with future career choices. These researchers found that nontraditional students who believe college will provide them with opportunities for employment and better careers are more likely to persist.

Another important component included in the importance of academic integration for nontraditional/adult students is the strong link between cumulative grade point average (GPA) and intent to persist. Belchair and Michener (1997), Farabaugh-Dorkins (1991), and Sandler (1998) all indicated cumulative grade point average (GPA) to be a good predictor variable for analyzing the retention, attrition, persistence and re-enrollment trends of nontraditional students.
Belchair and Michenier (1997) in their study on the retention of nontraditional students (mostly commuter), found that the first term GPA was the most important predictor for returning. Academic performance was also found to be a statistically significant predictor for re-enrollment trends when coupled with the intent to persist in Sandler's (1998) study on nontraditional learners enrolled in two-year and four-year degree programs. He found that cumulative GPA and intent to persist have the strongest influence on the re-enrollment or persistence of nontraditional students. Mercer (1993), in a women-only study, also reported the significant effect GPA had for women who graduated as opposed to those women who dropped out, and evidence for the positive impact on retention of GPA was reported by Farabaugh-Dorkinsd (1991), who stated that the lower the GPA the more likely a nontraditional student was to drop out.

While academic integration, which is defined as how well a student feels that he or she "fits" into the academic life of an institution, has been defined as an important function of nontraditional/ adult student persistence, research also indicates the importance of institutional commitment to this process. Institutional commitment is concerned with the feelings of attachment or belonging that students establish with the institution. Sandler (1998) emphasized the importance of a total system of integrated behaviors and structured relations of reciprocal relationships that exist between the faculty, the administration and the student that ultimately enhance the survival rate and/or persistence of the nontraditional student including: career decision-making self-efficacy and academic integration, institutional commitment and goal commitment and financial attitudes/difficulty and institutional commitment. Cini and Fritz (1996), who developed a survey for nontraditional students that assessed rewards, costs, investments, alternatives and commitment to college, also found that students should be informed of any rewards for recognition to their institution, including accreditation status, national rankings, and faculty accomplishments. They reported that if the nontraditional/adult students perceives the outcomes (grades, career options, etc.) to represent a fair exchange for time, effort and money invested that the student will be more committed to staying at that particular institution through to degree attainment.

STRATEGIES THAT CONTRIBUTE TO NONTRADITIONAL /ADULT STUDENT DEVELOPMENT AND PERSISTENCE

If nontraditional/adult students who are pursuing degrees are going to develop and prosper on college and university campuses, then the creation of special support programs for these students must be seen as a critical part of the entire lifelong learning degree-seeking enterprise. This research study suggests that the academic integration of nontraditional/adult students is extremely critical to their success on campus and that strategies need to be developed that:

Strategy One: Recognize the unique characteristics of the nontraditional/adult student by developing a nontraditional/adult student cultural perspective and nontraditional/adult communities on campus. These communities should then become the *advocates* for nontraditionalism on campus by encouraging shifts in view and perspectives that require flexibility and willingness to change in order to meet the needs of the nontraditional student population base.

Strategy Two: Establish a number of services to meet the variety of needs of nontraditional students. These services should include, but not be limited to, one-stop enrollment, advising and registration opportunities, as well as financial aid and career counseling developed especially for nontraditional/adult students. These services should also include electronic methods of communicating with students such as telephone registration and advising appointments, e-mail applications and website postings of time schedules, etc.

Strategy Three: Empower professional student services staff who counsel and advise nontraditional/adult students to be sensitive to the various types of educational backgrounds/needs of their nontraditional /adult students. Advisors, career and personal counselors of nontraditional/adult students need to be trained and aware of the following: the new conditions of work and the impact of constant change and uncertainty in the workplace, family system theory and the relationship between family, work and academic responsibilities, adult development theory and adult learning theory, different approaches for different client groups (dual career couples, older adults, women, ethnic groups, etc.), and selection and use of appropriate career assessment instruments.

Strategy Four: Employ, for the purposes of recruiting and pre-enrollment counseling, professional student services staff who possess strong motivational and advising skills in order to help nontraditional/adult students set realistic student expectations and establish a sense of university/college nontraditional community for prospective students.

Strategy Five: Develop orientation and first-year-experience workshops and courses for nontraditional/adult students that empower students to manage the culture of higher education, to deal with the many issues that cause anxiety about returning to school, and to develop learning skills and academic success strategies.

Strategy Six: Design career counseling and development experiences specifically directed to the higher-ordered needs of nontraditional/adult students and include internships, service learning and volunteer experiences as part of the focus. Placement services/opportunities ought be developed for these students as well.

Strategy Seven: Encourage faculty member who teach in nontraditional/adult student settings to develop *inclusive* learning environments that attend to this unique population. Methods that affect *inclusiveness* include: surveying the nontraditional students in the classroom and developing learning activities and curriculums that reflect the diversity of the group and developing a new pedagogical style that incorporates and/or draws upon the *inclusive* experience. This can be accomplished by incorporating the following: First, establish student/teacher interaction which reinforces the intercommunication between students. This "linking" process then facilities the sharing of common life experiences pertinent to course material. Second, present course information in a contextual manner allowing for lessons to refer to the relationship between the learner and his or her knowledge base. This context includes issues relating to the following four domains -- family-career-community-environment.

Recognizing that learning can be a transformative process is the third step and can be accomplished by such diverse practices in the classroom as reflective journal writing, storytelling, role-playing, small group discussion and metaphor analysis.

CONCLUSION

As the emergence of nontraditional/adult learners as a major constituency on campus continues, academics, practitioners and policy makers working with these populations need to recognize their unique characteristics. Not only must they develop new degree and non-degree programs for these students, but they must recognize that retention efforts with them require vision and creativity to guide efforts, programs to control the conditions that encourage development and persistence, the establishment of student support systems that foster nontraditionalism, the offering of high quality instruction and flexible structures and processes to help motivate and sustain nontraditional/adult student commitment.

REFERENCES

Apling, R. N. (1991). *Nontraditional students attending postsecondary institutions* (Report No. CRS-91-484-EPW). Washington, DC: Library of Congress, Congressional Research Service. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 342 303)

Belcheir, M. J., & Michener, B. (1997). *Dimensions of rentention: Findings from quantitative and quantitative approaches.* Unpublished manuscript, Boise State University, Boise, ID. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 414 869)

Cini, M. A., & Fritz, J. M. H. (1996). Predicting commitment in adult and traditional-age students: Applying Rusbult's investment model to the study of retention. *Journal of Public Management and Social Policy, 3*(1), 66-76.

Cleveland-Innes, M. (1994). Adult student dropout at postsecondary institutions. *The Review of Higher Education, 17*, 423-445.

Davidson, S. L., & Gilbert, L. A. (1993). Career counseling Is a personal matter. *Career Development Quarterly, 42*, 149-153.

Farabaugh-Dorkins, C. (1991). *Beginning to understand why older students drop out of college: A path analytic test of the Bean/Metzner model of nontraditional student attrition.* Tallahassee, FL: Florida State University, The Association for Institutional Research. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 332 598).

Glass. J. C., & Rose, A. R. (1994). Reentry women: A growing and unique college population. *NASPA Journal, 32*, 110-119.

Hall, D. T., & Mervis. P.H. (1995). The new career contract. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 47*, 269-289.

Horn, L. J., & Carroll, C. D. (1996). *Nontrational undergraduates: Trends in enrollment; from 1986 to 1992 and persistence and attainment among 1989-90 beginning postsecondary students. Postsecondary education descriptive analysis reports.* Washington, DC: National Center for Educational Statistics. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 402 857)

Horn, L. J., & Premo, M. (1995). *Profile of undergraduates in U. S. postsecondary education institutions: 1992-1993.* Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Education, National Center for Educational Statistics.

Johnson, D. (1991). *Formulating a conceptual model of nontraditional student attrition and persistence in postsecondary vocational educational programs.* Berkeley, CA: National Center for Research in Vocational Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 332 012)

Kerka, S. (1995). *Adult career counseling in a new age.* Columbus, OH: ERIC Clearinghouse for Adult, Career, and Vocational Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 389 881)

Lieberman, N., & Vaughn, S. A. (1990). Student services and retention for welfare students. *NASPA Journal, 27*, 281-286.

Marlow, C. (1989). Identifying the problems and needs of nontraditional students at your institution. *NASPA Journal, 27*, 272-277.

Marsella, A. J., & Leong. F. T. L. (1995). Cross-cultural issues in personality and career assessment. *Journal of Career Assessment, 3*, 202-218.

Mercer, D. L. (1993). Older coeds: Predicting who will stay this time. *Journal of Research and Development in Education, 26*, 154-163.

Peterson, S. L., & delMas, R. C. (1996, April). *Effects of career decision-making self-efficacy on the retention of underprepared adults: A path analytic study of student persistence.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 392 990)

Sandler, M. E. (1998, April). *Career decision-making self-efficacy and an integrated model of student persistence.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Diego, CA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 419 209)

U. S. Bureau of Census. (1992). *Poverty in the United States: 1992.* Washington, DC: U. S. Government Printing Office.

U. S. Department of Education, National Center for Educational Statistics. (1995). *The condition of education, 1995.* Washington, DC: Author.

Wilson, W. J., & Nickerman, K. (1986). Poverty and family structure: The widening gap between evidence and public policy. In S. H. Danzinger & D. H. Weinberg (Eds.), *Fighting poverty: What works and what doesn't* (pp. 232-259). Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Sherry Miller Brown, Ph.D., Senior Academic Consultant, The Center for Nontraditional Student Success and Development, College of General Studies, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA 15260. 412-624-7683 (voice), 412-624-3836 (fax). sbrown+@pitt.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

THE ESSENCE OF LEADERSHIP: LOOKING THROUGH THE EYES OF BLACK PROTESTANT PASTORS

Felicia Brown-Haywood

ABSTRACT

Not much is known about how Black pastors view their leadership development. Through face-to-face interviews with eight Black Protestant male pastors, this study provides rich phenomenological data about the leadership development journeys of each Pastor. Twenty-one themes emerged from the participants' responses and were categorized under five primary sections: illumination, introspective transformation, preparation, confrontation and liberation. Two primary conclusions were drawn after comparing the Anglo-centric leadership and pastoral leadership paradigms with the profile of the Black pastors generated in this study. First, the Anglo-centric context represented in leadership development research is different from the context of the minority group investigated in this study. Second, a re-examination of the current theories and assumptions regarding leadership development is needed.

INTRODUCTION

There is a dearth of literature that acknowledges the leadership paradigms of cultures outside of the Anglo-American male perspective. The predominant model of leadership is based on an Anglo-male hierarchical approach (Parker & Ogilvie, 1997; Loden, 1984). In recent years, models of leadership defining the differences between male and female leadership development styles, characteristics, and thoughts have appeared in the leadership and human resource development literature. Both male and female models, however, have been formulated from the middle-class Anglo-centric perspective and reflect the socialized traits, styles and culture of members of that group. The literature found in both of these perspectives places leadership and concepts of leadership within an Anglo-American cultural context.

In the last decade, scholars such as Parker and Ogilvie (1997) have questioned the application of Anglo-American models of leadership to all segments of the population. In their article, "Gender, Culture and Leadership," the authors contend that the richness and uniqueness of leadership and leadership development of those outside the Anglo-American culture have been overlooked.

Despite the rich history of leadership and leadership development in the African American community, specifically in the Black church, African Americans are inequitably represented in the literature. For centuries, the Black Christian church has served as the womb of leadership and leadership development for the Black community. Many scholars of African American history have consistently underscored that the Black Christian church is the only institution positioned within the context of the dominant culture that has not been influenced by the Anglo-American perspective (Lincoln & Mamiya, 1995; Massey & McKinney, 1976; Wilmore, 1993).

Responses in the words of African Americans interviewed will highlight their own culturally specific leadership approach and development. A greater understanding about the leadership development of contemporary Black Christian pastors provides a challenge to current researchers and is the purpose of this study. In other words, the aim of this study was to discover and present leadership development experiences of Black Christian pastors. These recorded experiences will integrate a composite profile of African American pastoral leadership into the body of literature on leadership development, thus expanding the available contexts and paradigms in which to study and consider leadership development.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RELATED LITERATURE

This study was based on a phenomenological orientation. It sought to gain an understanding of the personal meanings about leadership and leadership development offered by the pastors themselves, in this case African American adult males. No predetermined meaning was placed on their leadership development, although, interviewed pastors were currently in the primary leadership position at their church.

Literature related to Black pastors in the United States from slavery to present day was reviewed (Lincoln, 1974; Lincoln & Mayima, 1994; Massey & McKinney, 1991; Woodson, 1968). Additionally, a review and critique of mainstream models of leadership was conducted (Yukl, 1994; Bolman & Deal, 1991; Bennis, 1985; Loden, 1985, Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Fiedler, 1967; Lippitt, 1961). Although segments of each of these bodies of literature deal with identifying factors associated with leadership and leadership development, no suitable framework was discovered for understanding the leadership experiences salient to Black Protestant pastors.

METHODS AND DATA SOURCE

Face-to-face individual interviews were conducted with eight Black Protestant male pastors. An initial interview was conducted with each pastor, a second interview was conducted with each pastor after the completion of first level coding. The interviews ranged in length from forty-five minutes to one hundred and eighty minutes. The open-ended interviews were semi-structured and an interview guide was utilized to provide consistency. Open-ended interviewing also provided flexibility to re-word and re-order questions or additional probes as appropriate. Verbatim transcripts were inductively analyzed. Portions of the data were coded by two independent recorders as a check on dependability of findings. Member checks were conducted to enhance the validity of the study.

The eight pastors were all Black males who resided in south central Pennsylvania in the United States of America and members of the Inter-Denominational Ministerial Conference. Their age distribution included one person between ages 36 and 40; one person between the ages 41 and 45; two persons between the ages 46 and 50; three persons between the ages 51 and 55; and one person between the ages 75 and 79. All of the men were married and their wives were an active part of their ministry. All men were high school graduates. Two of the men had earned undergraduate degrees, three had earned master's level degrees and one had earned a doctoral degree. Although only three men reported earning a degree related to their ministry, all eight men reported formal and informal involvement in continuing education related to pastoral leadership.

FINDINGS

Five primary categories emerged from the data and served as the thematic codes for the thirteen sub-themes. Information relayed by each pastor was framed within the major themes that emerged during the interview with the pastors. Each story contains both the texture and the structure of the pastors' experiences. Selected quotes from individual pastors are used to support the interpretations of the major themes.

ILLUMINATION: A GIFT FROM GOD

A common thread that ran throughout the data was a theme called "out of the darkness into the light" (in the words of one participant). All eight men professed to be called to their position of leadership by God. They offered diverse leadership styles; however, they all expressed their purpose was to "lead people out of darkness into the marvelous light." The thematic code given to this theme is "Illumination: A Gift from God." This primary theme encompassed two sub-themes, calling to leadership and leading by faith, that hold individual significance for this study but which together amplify and support the larger theme.

A Calling to Leadership

Rev. Ozias described his call to leadership as "a divine lighting rod," which changed his life forever. While others did not use words that reflected the same intensity of change, they expressed their call to leadership in a variety of ways. "It was like being in a dark room and then all of a sudden, someone turned on the lights but no one else was there," Rev Naashon shared, "So you know that it is of God."

The participants all spoke of a notable change in their personal and spiritual life upon answering the call. Rev. Jechonias stated it this way:

> I was 16 years old when I answered the call. I had the gifts and abilities prior to the call; however, it is one thing to be gifted, but it's something else to be called by God. I want to make that clear, that there are two different distinctions. As I began to walk in my gifts and my calling, I began to recognize that all I wanted to do was to serve people by serving God and leading them to the Lord.

Leading by Faith

A second sub-theme that emerged from the interviews that supports the notion of leadership direction from God relates to the participants' views about faith. According to the participants, the role of faith in leadership development is multi-faceted. Some of the participants linked faith directly to their call to leadership. Rev. Gamul said, "It is my faith in God that gives me the strength to carry out the work he has called me to do." Rev. Amon shared this experience in relation to faith: "It is my relationship with God, and faith in knowing that he has the plan for my life and has imparted upon me a vision for the building of his kingdom. This vision was received by faith and will be implemented by faith."

INTROSPECTIVE TRANSFORMATION: THE GIFT OF SELF-REFLECTION

Whether daily self-reflection or crisis-driven introspection, the participants unanimously mentioned introspection as a leadership development factor. The quotes of Rev. Helez and Rev. Naashon reveal the essence of this theme. Rev. Helez explained:

> Leaders must first know themselves before they can expect to know and lead anyone else. This is not easy. You have to know your talents, skills, and abilities and not only nurture them but also be able to discern how and where God wants you to use them. . . . I develop by reflecting on what it takes for me to learn about myself and by being able to solicit and integrate feedback from others. As you well know, knowing one's self is a lifelong process.

Rev. Naashon, like the others, suggested it is impossible to know who you are if you don't know your history:

> As African Americans, it is important for us to know that we were not created as slaves. Before we were enslaved we were kings, queens, inventors, doctors, mathematicians, and great leaders. Until we rise to know this, our voices will be weak in this society. So you see I must learn who I have come from in order to know where I am going.

PREPARTION: PEOPLE MAKE THE DIFFERENCE

Another dominant theme that emerged from the interviews was the participants' views of their leadership development in relation to people. Experiences contributing to leadership development reveal three conduits through which learning has taken place. Conduits of family, congregation, and mentors were each mentioned with nearly equal frequency and were rarely mentioned in isolation. The pastors simultaneously noted leadership in the civic or political arena and the needs of their people and their community.

Family

Support from family members was a common thread throughout the data. Rev. Ozias summed this theme up this way:

> My wife stood by me when I wasn't sure what was happening to my career or me. It was scary to think that when I gave up everything, she had to give up everything. Not only that, we had to relocate to a place where she did not know anyone and she stuck by me through it all.

Others supported the notion of family guidance when they described experiences from their childhood. Rev. Manaen mentioned his grandmother:

> My grandma would hurt everyone in the house if you didn't go to church. She would hurt you real bad. So we went to church. When I was young, my friends would call me Preacher. This was a value of my grandmother and it became an attitude of my life.

Rev. Jechonias' response also gave credit to parental support: "My father and I have a good and wholesome relationship. My dad and I are first, father and son, but we're also best friends. I really love and respect him as my pastor through my developmental stages of becoming a pastor."

Congregation

All eight of the participants used the term "influence" when referring to their ability to enlist their congregation in the vision God has given them. Each viewed their influence as an element needed in the process of changing the "condition" of those they lead. Five of the eight participants suggested this influential relationship is symbiotic in nature. Rev. Gamul summed it up:

> As I reflect on my own leadership development situations with the congregation, I know my behavior in the pulpit has a lot to do with how the congregation reacts. The more they respond to the message, the more I build on the thought. In the same instance as I am receiving that charge, I am asking, "What did I do to get that response? I must remember that." If you think about it they are shaping my development. I guess you can say it is motivation and influence. They motivate me to continue to speak the Word, and they influence me to speak a certain way.

Mentors and Historical Role Models

Most of the participants spoke about their experience with formal education, whether it was by way of Bible college, seminary extension or degree programs. More than 50 percent of the participants believed the formal experience was good for networking and learning more about the administrative aspect of church; however, the best learning happened outside the classroom. Five of the eight participants expressed the value of a mentor during this leadership journey. Rev. Helez emphasized that who he is today is a result of instructors "pouring" themselves into him:

> I had the opportunity in seminary to sit under a lot of instructors who were themselves pastors. They shared a wealth of information you can't find in a book. O.K., it was based upon their experiences. They shared in such a way that when you finally did pastor, in part, you had a sense of some of the hurt and the pain and things because they opened themselves up and shared with you. That, coupled with what went on in the classroom, was a developmental experience for me.

Others expressed similar sentiments. Rev. Manaen, however, coupled mentoring with his view of historical role models. He gave a riveting historical account of the "shoulders he stood on" to gain his present status as a leader. He shared these comments:

> I think that my understanding of leadership has been grounded in the Martin Luther King era. I was about 18 years old when he was shot. I grew up reading *Ebony* and *Jet*

> magazines, and seeing their pictures and reading their stories made me feel a part of them. I always felt close to Angela Davis. Even though I have not officially studied under them, a lot of what I do and how I do it is as a result of watching them from a distance.

CONFRONTATION: CHALLENGINGTHE MOEHILLS, CLIMBINGTHE MOUNTAINS

All participants discussed social problems, which affect the mental, physical, emotional, psychological, and spiritual essence of the churched (those who attend church) and the unchurched (those who do not attend church) in the Black community. Rev. Naashon explained this challenge: "I am constantly developing new skills, whether it be in advocacy, social work, or creative financing. When I look at the state of our people here in our community, I know I must continue to challenge the molehills and climb the rough mountains." Rev. Ozias spoke of the chaos and dysfunction he constantly faces in the community:

> I find myself in the midst of confronting the life objectives of individuals and of the leaders in our society. The objectives that have been carried out by the leaders outside of our communities have resulted in chaos and dysfunction in our communities. And the simple approaches that we have as human beings as it relates to politics, economics, law, philosophy, civics, etc. compounds the problems. We have to be about maturing spirituality and politically. What you and I realize is that the materialistic approaches that are encouraged will not determine how and why we go through life. This life-view is the type of attitude that must be confronted in the young and the old.

LIBERATION: THE SUBSTANCE OF THINGS HOPED FOR

All eight of the participants spoke with great passion when discussing liberation. The socioeconomic and racial oppression that, according to the participants, continues to prevail today was present in all discussions. Some of the participants added the need for spiritual liberation to the topic of oppression in the lives of the church and the unchurched. The topic of liberation, as expressed by the participants, had three segments: understanding Black history, uplifting the people, and finding a balance.

Understanding Our History

Although it was mentioned to some degree by all of the participants, five of the eight participants spoke frequently about the need for African Americans to understand their own history. Rev. Manaen's summary statement was indicative of other statements by the participants:

> We need to understand that as a people we were stolen from our native environment and enslaved. We had already accomplished great things in our homeland. That we were not born slaves. I think until we know who we are, kings and queens, it is going to be difficult to be liberated from the bondage of oppression. This is a real challenge for me as a leader for two reasons. First, I must know and understand the Afro-centric perspective. This gives me a more realistic view of how things work for me from where I sit. Second, I must integrate this knowledge with what it is I am supposed to do in life: that is, to serve God's people so that He can be glorified. Third, I'm to give this word of liberation away to all who will listen so that they can reach their fullest potential and carry out the plan that God has for their lives. Like I said before, this is not an easy task.

Uplifting the People

The Black church was described by some of the participants as the only institution that Black people own. Naturally, the owners are concerned with the constant problems the Black church must confront. One participant commented that the problems in the Black church are greater than the resources available in the church. Other participants talked about the need for the leaders of the Black church to build, motivate, and instill in the people the principles of self-determination on which the Black church was founded. One Reverend explained:

> We must continue to share the foundational principles today in these troubled times. We just have to match the necessary process to the problem; that is where the leaders come in. It is our job to make sure the necessary tools for continued survival be passed down.

Finding a Balance

All participants expressed the importance of obtaining and maintaining balance in their lives. While they all spoke of balance, the discussions from which this theme emerged revealed marked individuality in how that balance is obtained. For example, Rev. Helez explained balance as sharing the ministry:

> Training others in the church to share in your ministry provides a sense of balance because you have entrusted those individuals with ministry responsibilities. Sharing the responsibility with the deacons, trustees, etc., I have learned this approach gives me more time to study and more time to be with my family.

CONCLUSION

Conclusions from this study can be drawn from four perspectives: personal, developmental, communal, and transformational.

1. At the personal level, the pastors seemed to be involved in an ongoing process of expanding and refining their understandings of themselves, their history, and their environment. While this process is not unique to these leaders, it appears to be a conscious aspect of their lives and their leadership.

2. The developmental perspective illuminates the integration of their experience, particularly experience that challenges their meaning system. This perspective points to a major way in which these pastors develop both spiritually and in leadership.

3. In considering the communal perspective, the leadership journeys of these pastors appear to bring them into a committed relationship with many levels of the community. They are committed to their congregational community, their racial/ethnic community their geographical community, and ultimately to the global community. These commitments are not only given purpose to their lives, but also provide a context within which they exercise their leadership.

4. The transformational perspective is in the context of mutuality, commitment, trust, and vulnerability. It is within this perspective that much of the interaction between faith and leadership seems to occur.

Based on the findings and the discussion of the major findings, a basic understanding of this group of pastors challenges the current literature on adult learning and mainstream leadership development models. The pastors tended to develop and gain greater knowledge about their own leadership development in contexts involving social interaction within their own cultural context. As the pastors articulated their experiences, they were, in fact, pursuing meanings of those experiences and demonstrating their reflections on their leadership development experiences. Subsequently, the research findings suggest a way in which the significance of leadership development outside of the Anglo-centric paradigm can be explored.

REFERENCES

Bennis, W. (1989). *Why leaders can't lead*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders: Strategies for taking charge*. New York: Harper & Row.

Briscoe, D., & Ross, J. (1989). Racial and ethnic: Minorities and adult education. In S. B. Merriam & P. M. Cunningham (Eds.), *Handbook of adult and continuing education* (pp. 558-598). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bolman, L., & Deal, T. (1991). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice, and leadership.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Fiedler, F. E. (1967). *A theory of leadership effectiveness.* New York: McGraw-Hill

Lincoln, C. E. (1974). *The Black experience in religion.* Garden City, NY: Anchor Press.

Lincoln, C. E., & Mamiya, L. H. (1995). *The Black church in the African American experience.* Durham: Duke University Press.

Lippitt, G. (Ed.). (1961). *Leadership in action.* Washington, DC: National Training Laboratories.

Loden, M. (1985). *Feminine leadership or how to succeed in business without being one of the boys.* New York: Times Books.

Massey, F., Jr., & McKinney, S. B. (1991). *Church administration in the Black perspective.* Valley Forge, PA: Judson Press.

Parker, P. S., & Ogilvie, D. T. (1997). *Gender, culture, and leadership: Toward a culturally distinct model of African American women executives' leadership stratagies.* Manuscript submitted for publication.

Wilmore, G. S. (1993). *Black religion and Black radicalism: An interpretation of the religious history of Afro-American people* (2nd ed.). Maryknoll, NY: Orbis Books.

Woodson, C. G. (1968). *The history of the Negro church.* Washington, DC: The Associated Publishers.

Yukl, G. (1994). *Leadership in organizations.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Felicia Brown-Haywood, D.Ed., NCC, Manager, Student Assistance Center, The Pennsylvania State University, Harrisburg Campus, 777 W. Harrisburg Pike, Middletown, PA 17057

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University, Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

SIMULATING THE IMPACT OF WEB-BASED LEARNING ON THE UNIVERSITY

Alison A. Carr-Chellman
Ikseon Choi
Julián Hernández-Serrano

ABSTRACT

The goal of this paper is to share the results of our attempts to build a simulation model of the potential impacts of web-based learning on various university sub-systems such as libraries, facilities, and budgets. Based on work which modeled the processes of faculty adoption of technology in higher education (Seigel, 1999), we have worked to identify the major components, values, and subsystems necessary for a potentially robust simulation based on change, adoption, and diffusion theories (Rogers, 1995), as well as information about the systems of higher education and online learning (Daniel, 1996; Katz & Associates, 1999; National Center for Educational Statistics, 1997). The current model contains dozens of variables which impact various levels of adoption rates within student and faculty groups. The current model, built in Stella®, aids primarily by building a deeper understanding of the relationships among the components rather than being of predictive value. We recognize that it is impossible to anticipate all of the chaotic cycles of change that any institution goes through when introducing a new technology into an organization. However, this first attempt will be refined as we gain more information and input from colleagues and conference participants. In addition, a systematic, comprehensive examination of the systemic impact of web-based learning on higher education will help institutions and continuing education administrators as they consider their own plans to adopt web-based learning programs.

INTRODUCTION: WHY THE NEED FOR A MODEL?

More than one third of all four-year colleges and universities offered some form of distance education in 1997 (National Center for Education Statistics, 1997) and the offerings are on the rise. As of May 1998, more than a hundred degrees were available on-line from humanities to aerospace engineering (World Wide Learning Community, 1998). Many of these degrees are available from traditional institutions such as the University of Maryland, Auburn University and California State University. The growth in web-based education is an explosion unparalleled elsewhere in the educational enterprise (Daniel, 1996; Jones, 1997). Although this area only amounted to approximately $550 million of the adult education market in 1998, the growth expectations are phenomenal. Some have suggested that adults will be spending upwards of $9.3 billion for online educational experiences by 2003 (Beer, 1999). Fueled by fear of open-market competition and recent advances in web-based design tools, the economies of scale for distance education have become *very* attractive to higher education administration. While web-based degree offerings proliferate, the impacts on the broader system of higher education are not at all clear.

In many cases, the impacts of online education have not been well studied. Very little formal research has been conducted on the effects not only on individual students or faculty members who are involved in online learning, but also of overall impacts of web-based education on the entire university system. Most of the literature to date on online education has been focused on small case studies (Galusha, 1998; Thurber & Pope, 1998), theoretical works which show a decidedly pro-innovation bias (e.g., Jones, 1997), and examinations of effective strategies for marketing and advancing online learning and continuing education as an enterprise (e.g., Simerly, 1989). The inclusion of serious inquiry into the system-wide impacts of online learning have been largely untouched. For instance, what impact does the growth of online learning have on library resources, facilities planning, faculty hiring, curriculum approval, advising processes, admissions and student aid applications, and many other facets of the chaotic and complex enterprise known as higher education? In fact, while the advocates claim that online learning will save the university and detractors claim it will be its demise, there remains little evidence of either claim and even less knowledge about the potential impacts which administrators should carefully and cautiously consider when instituting a new program (or growing a current program) of online learning.

In our view, a model is needed, one in which knowledge of those currently involved in the online learning enterprise (both advocates and concerned detractors) as well as theories of change processes can be combined to consider the eventual impacts of online learning on higher education. Online learning is a highly seductive new movement in higher education. Its profit possibilities are apparent, and potentially endless. The ability for online learning to bring quality higher education to the masses is extremely appealing, but as yet unproven. The advantages of using high technology for noble educational goals feed advocates for technology as well as for funding. However, a clear understanding, one that attempts to include many of the variables which are currently not considered when making adoption decisions, is imperative for administrators embarking on the online learning journey. In order to make effective and appropriate decisions, a clear understanding of the impact of one's decisions, informed by a wide variety of systemic variables will assist in the best decision making process.

WHAT WILL THE MODEL REALLY DO?

Simulations are typically thought of as predictive tools, they mathematically simulate a potential future given certain inputs for variables that are thought to be most salient to the future of the system. However, when simulating social systems, and adoption processes in particular, the future is undeniably complex and chaotic and therefore it is impossible to predict the future with any fidelity. Instead, we have three goals that we set out for this simulation:

- To create a stronger *understanding* of systemic impacts of online learning
- To *project* potential impacts
- To aid in better *decision making*

UPON WHAT THEORIES IS THE MODEL FOUNDED?

This simulation is based on Rogers' (1995) theory of Diffusion of Innovations. While it can be said that Rogers' theory is colonial in its basic premises (how to get people to adopt what *you* want them to adopt), it is clearly one of the most cited and pre-eminent theories of social change and innovation diffusion available to us today. A number of potential change models were considered for utilization in this simulation (e.g., Havelock & Zlotlow, 1995; Fullan, 1994; Checkland, 1981). However, Rogers (1995) was seen as the most applicable because it is founded on a mathematical distribution of adopters over time (a normal S curve) which can then be utilized to develop further our mathematical simulation (Seigel, 1999).

According to Rogers (1995), the adoption of innovations can be understood in terms of five stages in the innovation-decision process and five stages of change (see Table 1). By using Roger's stages, we were able to build a simulation model that represents these stages within the complex system of a growing online education system.

WHAT DO THE RELATIONAL CONCEPTUAL MAPS FOR THIS MODEL LOOK LIKE?

In order to build the simulation we have taken several specific major sub-systems (i.e., Students, Faculty, Curriculum, and Infrastructure) as our starting points for the development of the potential impacts that the innovation, web-based education, may have on the system of interest (in this case we have limited ourselves to Penn State University, University Park location). These subsystems can be briefly defined as:

Students–the total US student population
Faculty–the total number of faculty currently active at University Park

Table 1

Rogers Model for the Adoption of Innovations

Stages in the Innovation- Decision Process	Stages of Change	Possible Questions and Actions by a Typical Student Contemplating an Online Education
Knowledge	Precontemplation	I need to get a certificate in XYZ in order to get my promotion. Penn State offers the necessary courses.
Persuasion	Contemplation	Should I follow John's advice that I take the online Penn State course?
Decision	Preparation	I will contact Penn State for more information.
Implementation	Action	I will try the first of eight courses to see how it works.
Confirmation	Maintenance	I will continue taking the rest of the courses. I will talk to Alice about this.

Curriculum–the total number of courses offered at University Park
Infrastructure – libraries, administrative support, communications, etc.

Each of these subsystems has a number of factors that work upon their adoption levels and systemic impacts. By interviewing Penn State personnel and consulting current literature on the diffusion of online education, we identified what we believe are the most important of these factors that could potentially affect the behavior of students and faculty as they contemplate the possibility of becoming adopters by enrolling in or teaching an online course. An example of a simplified conceptual model ("factors map") for student adoption is seen in Figure 1.

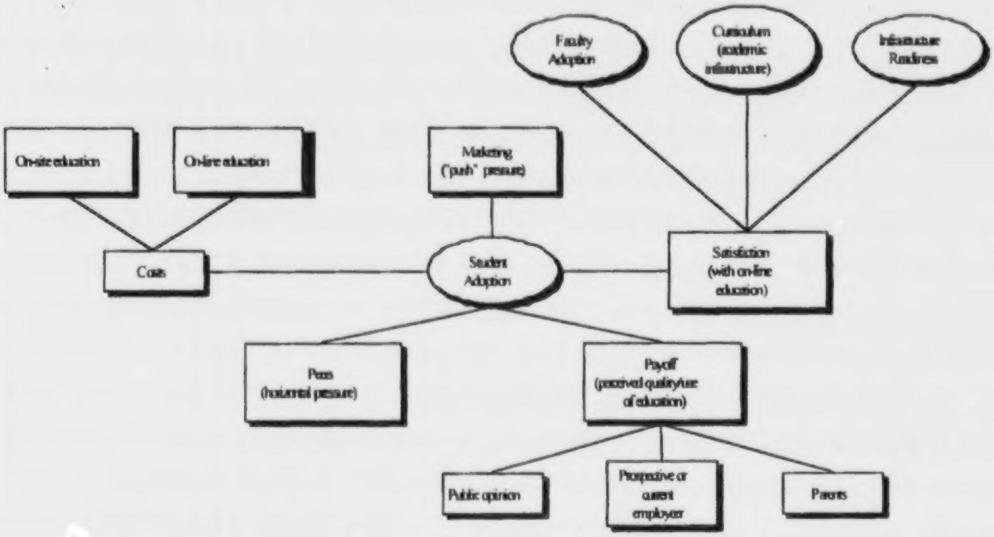
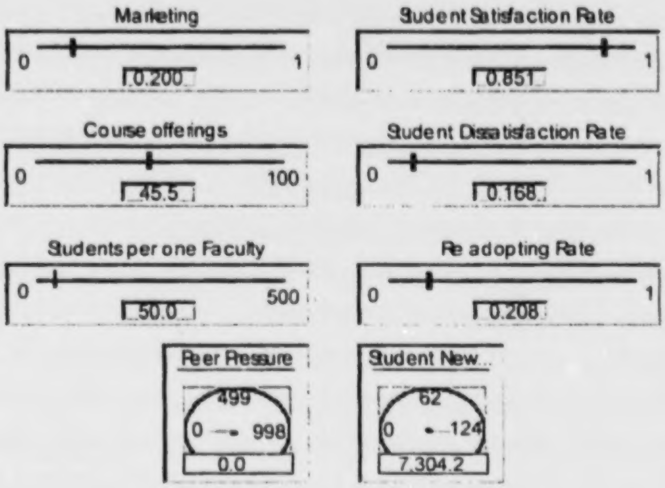

Faculty Adoption
Curriculum (academic infrastructure)
Infrastructure Readiness
On-site education
On-line education
Marketing ("push" pressure)
Costs
Student Adoption
Satisfaction (with on-line education)
Peers (horizontal pressure)
Payoff (perceived quality/use of education)
Public opinion
Prospective or current employer
Parents

Figure 1. An example of a simplified conceptual model ("factors map") for student adoption.

HOW DOES THE SIMULATION WORK?

The factors identified above were turned into simulation variables and input into the simulation software Stella®. Roger's stages were then combined with the "factors map." The factors, now turned into variables in Stella®, are manipulated through the use of slide bars as shown in Figure

2. The administrator may affect the behavior of the whole system by simply selecting an appropriate value. For example, for "Marketing" she may choose a value that ranges from 0 to 1 (zero money budgeted to marketing to 100% of the largest amount that could possibly be devoted to this effect); for "Students per one Faculty" she may choose a value from 0 to 500 students/one professor, etc. In addition, meters such as "Student New Adopters" reflect the changes within this variable as the simulation progresses. Due to the limitation of space only a few of these controls are shown.



Marketing 0.200

Student Satisfaction Rate 0.851

Course offerings 45.5

Student Dissatisfaction Rate 0.168

Students per one Faculty 50.0

Re adopting Rate 0.208

Peer Pressure 0.0

Student New... 7,304.2

Figure 2. The factors now turned into variables in Stella®.

Once the administrator understands the various meters that indicate a particular value for a particular subsystem or variable, she is able to input various mathematical levels for each of the variables through the slide bars. These are clearly guesses on the part of the administrator, however, through observing the impacts on various subsystems in higher education when the administrator plays "what if" with these variables, a better and deeper understanding of overall systemic impacts and the potential for diffusion of the innovation is gained.

An administrator might attempt to set these levels themselves with the software directly by entering a default value—in Figure 2, marketing's default value is set at 0.200—or via an interview, in which the administrator might respond to a series of directed questions posed by someone sufficiently familiar with the interface to be able to set the variable levels based on administrator responses. Other values may be derived from the populations of interest; for example, by administering surveys after each semester, the administrator can have a better idea about what the degree of student satisfaction is. In either case, a graphical display will clearly illustrate the impacts of changes in variables and thus system-wide impacts of increases in marketing for online education, increases in web-based offerings, or increases in numbers of online students. For example, Figure 3 shows the rate of increase of faculty awareness, support and adoption—graphs 1, 2 and 3 respectively—from 1997 through 2020 given some specific variable values.

These graphic results may not lead to a reliable prediction of what will happen in a particular context since all of the variables may not be estimable in a single technology solution. It is one of the limitations of technology that it currently cannot anticipate all possible outcomes and display them for us. However, the simulation will lead to a deeper understanding of the overall system and those factors that are important in designing a new, or expanding an existing, online learning system at a university. Deeper understanding will facilitate the process of projecting the impacts of these evolving systems. This in turn will facilitate better decision-making.

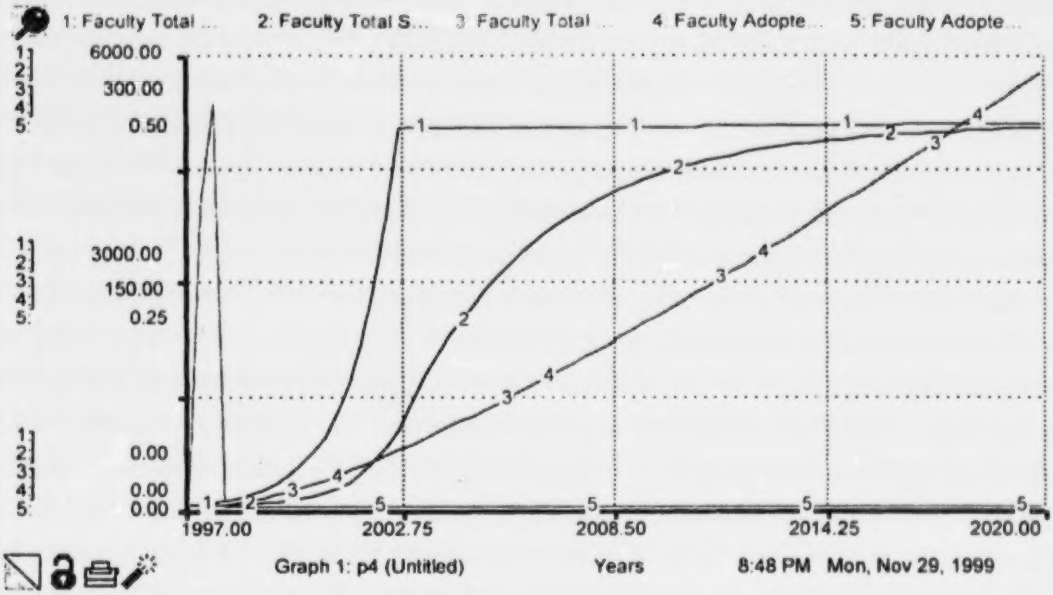


Figure 3. The rate of increase of faculty awareness, support and adoption from 1997 through 2020 given some specific variable values.

WHAT IS NEXT?

Because the system we are trying to simulate here is broad and wide and interacts with many other related systems, we could hardly call this a complete system-wide simulation of the impacts of web-based learning on higher education or its surrounding community. In the future, the simulation needs to incorporate considerations of impacts on small-town college community life as a result of increases in online enrollments, and should more adequately deal with the intricacies of reward/incentive/adoption systems of human motivation. In addition, longitudinally, the simulations need to be verified and researched from both qualitative and quantitative standpoints in an attempt to determine their efficacy, usability, and applicability.

REFERENCES

Beer, M. (1999, May 2). Feeding hungry minds. *San Francisco Examiner*, p. 2.

Checkland, P. (1981). *Systems thinking, systems practice.* New York: John Wiley.

Daniel, J. S. (1996). *Mega-universities and knowledge media: Technology strategies for higher education.* London: Kogan Page.

Fullan, M. (1994). *Change forces.* Bristol, PA: Falmer Press.

Galusha, J. M. (1998). *Barriers to distance education.* Unpublished manuscript. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 416 377)

Havelock, R. G., & Zlotlow, S. (1995). *The change agent's guide.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications.

Jones, G. R. (1997). *Cyberschools.* Englewood, CO: Jones Digital Century.

Katz, R. N., & Associates (Eds.). (1999). *Dancing with the devil: Information technology and the new competition in higher education.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

National Center for Education Statistics. (1997). Distance education in higher education institutions (NCES 98-062) [On-line]. Available: http://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/ pubsinfo .asp?pubid=98062

Rogers, E. M. (1995). *Diffusion of innovations.* New York: The Free Press.

Seigel, M. E. (1999). Instructional infrastructure planning: Innovation theory, systems theory, and computer modeling [On-line]. Available: http://horizon.unc.edu/monograph/CD/Change_Innovation/Seigel.asp

Simerly, R. G. (1989). *The handbook of marketing for continuing education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Thurber, B. D., & Pope, J. W. (1998, March). Electronic communication and the humanities. Paper presented at INET '98: The Internet Summit, Geneva, Switzerland.

World Wide Learning Community. (1998). Universities & colleges [On-line]. Available: http://www.wwlc.com/

Alison A. Carr-Chellman (aac3@psu.edu), Ikseon Choi, and Julián Hernández-Serrano, Penn State University, Instructional Systems, 315 Keller Building, University Park, PA 16802

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State University, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

RELATIONSHIP OF TEACHING STYLE, PERSONALITY PROFILE, AND LEVEL OF BURNOUT WITH ADULT EDUCATOR EFFECTIVENESS

Katherine L. Cason

ABSTRACT

This study examined the educational effectiveness of lay educators working with adults with limited literacy skills, and compared educator teaching style, personality type, and level of burnout with their teaching effectiveness. The Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) designed by Conti in 1982 was used to assess educator teaching styles. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) was used to assess personality characteristics of educators. The Matthews Burnout Scale for Employees (MBSE) was used to operationalize the variable of burnout as a numerical score. Results indicate that there are associations among these variables and the level knowledge gain and level of positive behavioral change in students. This study indicates that teacher-centered approach more effectively elicits educational program impact. Educators whose MBTI personality traits fell in the ESTJ range more effectively achieved knowledge gain and positive behavior change with their students. The study also indicates that educators who had scores on the MBSE instrument which were in the low to moderate range of employee burnout were more likely to have higher levels of student knowledge gain and positive behavior change. Information from this study can guide and direct personnel and training decisions and enhance programs of organizations that utilize adults for education delivery.

INTRODUCTION

Many adult education programs are under pressure to adopt more efficient, accountable, and less expensive means of educational programming. One approach utilized by many systems to achieve the objective of providing cost effective education is the expanded use of lay educators. The identification of characteristics of effective educators has become one of the major dilemmas encountered when implementing the lay educator model. Criteria for identifying and selecting effective lay educators have tended to emerge out of a trial and error process (Larner & Halpern, 1987). Yerka's (1974) research and the later research of Cadwaller (1985) and Cadwaller and Olson (1986), as well as the commentary of Giblin (1989), however, questioned whether the lay educator's subject matter knowledge is her most important characteristic in determining program outcomes with clients. Yerka (1974) found that job persistence, experience, attitude toward work, age, and knowledge of teaching-learning strategies also contributed greatly in explaining variance in program knowledge outcomes. Santopolo and Kell (1976) identified positive attitude, enthusiasm, persuasiveness, self-confidence, commitment, concern and initiative as critical job requirements for lay educators. Iscan and Nelson (1977) identified several personal characteristics of lay educators, specifically, the ability to relate with people, attitude toward others and the ability to express, as the highest ranked characteristics important for success. Jackson and Schuler (1983) suggest that personal characteristics, including idealistic expectations, idealistic job and career goals, and personal responsibility for low personal accomplishment, may interact with organizational conditions and cause employee burnout. In addition to reduced performance, employees with burnout exhibit withdrawal behaviors and interpersonal friction develops. Wasik (1993) suggests that personal maturity, good judgment, and interpersonal skills are key considerations in the selection of successful professional and lay educator home visitors. However, in 1997, Wasik noted that many assumptions about the characteristics needed by successful by successful lay educators are not based upon empirical studies.

PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES

Program administrators can benefit from knowing the characteristics of effective lay educators so they can make informed decisions. Three categories of an individual's personal characteristics that are related to interaction with others in a teacher-student relationship are the individual's personal teaching style, personality type, and level of burnout. The study was designed to compare Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program (EFNEP) lay educators' teaching style, personality profile, and level of burnout with their program effectiveness.

METHODS

PROCEDURES

The population for this study were the forty-one EFNEP lay educators in South Carolina. Administered by the Cooperative State Research Education and Extension Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture, in cooperation with State Cooperative Extension Services, EFNEP has employed lay educators to provide nutrition education to limited resource audiences in the 55 states and territories of the United States of America since 1969.

INSTRUMENTATION

The study examined lay educator effectiveness and compared lay educators' teaching styles and personality characteristics with program effectiveness. Data from the 1997 Adult Enrollment form, a component of the national EFNEP record keeping system, were utilized to measure program effectiveness. The Adult Enrollment form provides demographic and behavioral change data of participants as it relates to resource management, food safety and nutrition behaviors. These included 1) planning meals in advance, 2) comparing prices, 3) running out of food before the end of the month, 4) not allowing meat or dairy foods to sit out for more than two hours, 5) not thawing foods at room temperature, 6) thinking of healthy food choices when deciding what to feed their families, 7) preparing foods without adding salt, 8) reading labels to select food with less sodium, and 9) reading labels to select food with less fat. Program effectiveness was defined in this study as statistically significant positive behavioral change in these nine areas as reported by program participants on the Adult Enrollment form.

The Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) designed by Conti (1982) was used to assess lay educator teaching styles. This 44 item instrument is a summative rating scale using a modified Likert-type scale to identify an individuals' preferred teaching style, either teacher-centered or learner-centered. PALS has been tested by Conti for construct validity, criterion-related validity, and content validity (Conti, 1985b). He also has tested the PALS for reliability and internal consistency within the field of adult education (Conti, 1985b). Possible scores on the PALS range from zero to 220. The normed mean for the PALS is 146. High scores on the instrument are associated with learner-centered teaching behaviors. Lower PALS scores are associated with teacher-centered behaviors. A learner-centered teaching approach is described by Conti as being a collaborative process that assumes that adult learners are problem-centered and learn better when they deal with problems directly concerning them and the learning has immediate application to solving those problems. In the learner-centered mode, the teacher functions as a facilitator who supports the learners' self-directed learning efforts. The teacher-centered approach is an authoritarian approach to learning with the authority for what is to be learned and how it will be taught resides with the instructor (Conti, 1985a).

In a study of the relationship between teaching style and adult student learning in an adult basic education program, Conti (1985b) found that for short-term learning goals directed toward a specific goal (in this case, the GED), a teacher-centered approach appeared to be the more effective approach. However, for the development of skills that require a long-term process of learning that involves student self-concept, the more learner-centered approach appeared to be more effective. Each educators' score on the PALS was placed into one of three ordinal categories of low, medium and high for analysis purposes.

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)was used to assess personality characteristics of lay educators. The MBTI, based on Jung's theory of psychological types, reports preferences on four sub-scales. The four scales are Extraversion-Introversion Scale (EI), Sensing-Intuition Scale (SN), Thinking- Feeling Scale (TF), and Judgment-Perception Scale (JP). The EI scale describes whether an individual likes to focus his attention on the outer or inner world. The SN scale describes how an individual perceives or acquires information; does he use his senses of rely on intuition? The TF scale describes how the individual makes decisions or judgments about something either through thinking or feeling. The JP scale describes how an individual orients himself to the outer world by taking primarily a judging attitude or a perceptive attitude (Myers, 1962). Lay educators' results from each sub-scale of the MBTI were analyzed as a two-level nominal variable for analysis.

The Matthews Burnout Scale for Employees (MBSE) was selected as the data collection instrument for this study because it operationalizes the variable of burnout as a numerical score resulting from the use of a paper and pencil test. It is a self-report instrument of 50 items that measures a single construct of burnout by sampling a variety of behaviors from the cognitive, affective, and physiological domains (Matthews, 1986), and was designed for use with working adults in people-oriented occupations. The instrument has six subscales for different categories of behavior. The subscales are work attitudes, role adjustment, locus of control, coping skills, personal adjustment, and temperament. Work attitudes reflect the worker's affective response to the duties and tasks of one's position. This varies from enthusiasm through apathy to antipathy. Role adjustment is the worker's ability to change performance in response to assignments. Locus of control is the degree to which an individual feels responsible and powerful over one's own life. Coping skills are a person's ability to be flexible in the face of changing demands and managing time. Personal adjustment includes team identification, as opposed to isolation, and a realistic knowledge of personal strengths and weaknesses. Temperament is a stable personality trait related to a person's behavioral patterns.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Data collected in the project were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 7.5 for Windows (SPSS,1997). Descriptive statistics were used to identify levels of impact of EFNEP programming. Crosstabulations, with appropriate measures of levels of associations, were used to determine levels of association between variables. Levels of statistical significance were determined at the .05 level.

RESULTS

TEACHING STYLE

The mean score for the 37 EFNEP lay educators who completed the PALS was 89.7. This indicates that the lay educators as a group are much more teacher-centered than the norm as found by Conti (1985a). Examination of the lay educators' PALS teaching style scores and the reported level of behavior changes by participants indicated statistically significant levels of association for six out of the nine behaviors. The three behaviors for which no statistically significant associations were found were: comparing prices when shopping, running out of food before the end of the month, and not thawing foods at room temperature. For each of the six behaviors that had a significant level of association with the PALS score, participants reporting greater degrees of positive change in food-related behaviors were working with lay educators whose PALS scores were more teacher-centered, as opposed to the lay educators whose scores were more toward the learner-centered end of the scale.

PERSONALITY TRAITS

Personality traits, as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) scale, also indicated several statistically significant associations with the levels of behavioral change reported by EFNEP participants. For the extraversion/introversion (E/I) preference area of MBTI, seven out of the nine reported behavioral changes produced a statistically significant measure of association between level of behavioral change and level of preference. For the seven behaviors that were associated with the E/I area, the analysis indicates that participants working with a lay educator in the extraversion (E) range of the MBTI are more likely to report higher levels of positive behavioral change than those working with a lay educator in the introversion (I) range.

In the sensing/intuition (S/N) MBTI preference area, seven out of the nine behavioral items were associated with the personality trait level of the lay educator. For those behaviors that were associated with the S/N preference area, participants who worked with lay educators scoring in the MBTI sensing (S) range were more likely to report higher levels of positive behavioral change than those working with a lay educator in the intuition (N) range.

The thinking/feeling (T/F) MBTI preference level was also associated with the level of reported positive behavioral change of participants in the same seven behavioral items as that found in the Extraversion/Introversion (E/I) range. EFNEP participants who worked with lay educators scoring in the MBTI thinking (T) preference range were more likely to report higher levels of positive behavioral change than those individuals working with lay educators in the Feeling (F) range.

The judging attitude/perception attitude (J/P) MBTI level was associated with reported behavioral change in all nine of the reported behavioral change items. The analysis showed that those participants working with lay educators whose MBTI scores fell in the judging (J) range were more likely to report higher levels of positive behavioral change than those participants working with a lay educator whose score was in the Perception (P) range.

LEVEL OF EMPLOYEE BURNOUT

Burnout data were analyzed to determine a by total burnout score as well as to determine scores for each of the six subscales. The MBSE scale trichotomizes respondents into categories of low (0-25), moderate (26-50), and high (51-100) levels of burnout. The mean score for the group was 20.5 (sd 8.9), or a low level of burnout. Total burnout scores for educators indicated 37.1% at the low burnout level, 42.9% at the moderate burnout level, and 20.0% at the high burnout level. Regarding the six subscales, the higher the levels within each subscale, the higher the symptoms of burnout that are exhibited. In four of the six MBSE subscales, a majority of educators demonstrated a moderate to high level of burnout - locus of control (62.9%), coping skills (71.4%), personal adjustment (84.0%), and temperament (77.1%). In one subscale, role adjustment, approximately half (48.5%) of the educators demonstrated moderate to high levels of burnout. In the role adjustment subscale, 80.0% of the educators demonstrated low levels of burnout. Examination of the lay educators' MBSE teaching style scores and the reported level of behavior changes by participants indicated statistically significant levels of association for six out of the nine behaviors. The three behaviors for which no statistically significant associations were found were: comparing prices when shopping, running out of food before the end of the month, and not thawing foods at room temperature. For each of the six behaviors that had a significant level of association with the MBSE score, participants reporting greater degrees of positive change in food-related behaviors were working with lay educators whose scores were in the low or moderate level of burnout.

DISCUSSION

One of the findings of this study is that a relationship exists between the teaching style used in the education setting by the EFNEP lay educators in this study and the level of participant behavior change. Although the adult education literature (Freire, 1970; Kidd, 1976; Knowles, 1970) suggests that the collaborative, learner-centered method of teaching is generally the most effective, this study indicates that teacher-centered approach more effectively elicits educational program impact. These results also appear to support Conti's findings in his study of an adult basic education program (Conti, 1985b). In that study, those individuals studying for the GED were more successful when taught by a more teacher-centered instructor. Perhaps the EFNEP curriculum objectives (i.e. specific behavioral changes) are somewhat like the goal of getting the GED in that they are very focused on specific, short-term goals. Another possible explanation is that EFNEP program participants are, generally, unfamiliar with adult learning situations and may require a more structured, organized learning environment in order to understand new concepts and develop skills necessary to change behavior.

This study indicates that lay educators whose MBTI personality traits fell in the ESTJ range more effectively achieved positive behavior change with their program participants. The individual with these personality traits tends to focus on the outer world of people and the external environment. This type of individual prefers to communicate by talking rather than writing, and needs to experience the world in order to understand it and thus tends to like variety and action. This "people-focus" corresponds with the literature which suggests that interpersonal skills are critical for successful lay educators. The lay educator with the sensing and thinking combination of preferences would tend to focus attention on realities and tends to handle this with objective analysis, thus becoming practical and analytical. The individual with this personality preference combination appears to be more successful. This conflicts with the literature which suggests that a successful lay educator should convey warmth, be empathetic, friendly, enthusiastic and understanding – traits which describe the feeling and intuition preferences of the MBTI.

This study also indicates that lay educators whose MBSE burnout scores fell in the low to moderate range more effectively achieved positive behavior change with their program participants. The successful operation of lay educator program requires an auspicious relationship between the educators and the students. If significant levels of burnout exist among lay educators that negatively affect their work performance, it follows that the students will not be as likely to learn and change their behavior toward more nutritious food consumption patterns.

CONCLUSIONS

Administrators of educational programs utilizing lay educators to deliver educational programs directly to clientele should explore the use the measures of personality type and preferred teaching style in the lay educator recruitment, selection, orientation, and inservice training processes. Hiring, training, and ongoing staff support decisions are critical for the provision of quality lay educator-delivered programs. Programs that cannot hire and retain quality staff will not be effective. Ineffective lay educator staff or high levels of staff turnover results in the inefficient use of valuable organizational resources. Program administrators could benefit from knowing the characteristics of effective lay educators so they can make informed personnel and staff development decisions.

Given the importance of these non-subject matter knowledge characteristics to a lay educator's program success, being able to identify individuals that possess these characteristics would help administrators to hire individuals that would require less support resources from the organization while still being successful. Identifying which personal characteristics are most closely associated with program success would be valuable information for organizations in making personnel and staff development decisions and, ultimately, making the lay educator model operate effectively and efficiently.

REFERENCES

Cadwaller, A. A. (1985). *A formative evaluation of a breast-feeding education program for low income women.* Unpublished master's thesis, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY.

Cadwaller, A. A., & Olson, C. M. (1986). Use of a breast-feeding intervention by nutrition professionals. *Journal of Nutrition Education. 18*(3), 117-122.

Conti, G. J. (1982). The Principles of Adult Learning Scale. *Adult Literacy and Basic Education, 6,* 135-147.

Conti, G. J. (1985a). Assessing teaching style in adult education: How and why. *Lifelong Learning: An Omnibus of Practice and Research, 8*(8), 7-11.

Conti, G. J. 1985b). The relationship between teaching style and adult student learning. *Adult Education Quarterly, 35,* 220-228.

Freire, P. (1970). *The pedagogy of the oppressed.* New York: The Seabury Press.

Giblin, P. T. (1989). Effective utilization and evaluation of indigenous health care works. *Public Health Reports, 104,* 361-368.

Iscan, W. E., & Nelson, H. Y. (1977). Follow-up of paraprofessionals working with low-income families. *Home Economics Research Journal, 6*, 148-163.

Jackson, S. E., & Schuler, R. S. (1983, March- April). Preventing employee burnout. *Personnel*, pp. 58-68.

Kidd, J. R. (1976). *How adults learn*. New York: Association Press.

Knowles, M. S. (1970). *The modern practice of adult education: Andragogy vs. pedagogy.* New York: Association Press.

Larner, M., & Halpern, R. (1987). Lay home visiting programs: Strengths, tensions, and challenges. *Zero-to-Three, 8*(1), 1-7.

Matthews, D. B. (1986). *Manual for the Matthews Burnout Scale for Employees*. Orangeburg, SC: South Carolina State College, Department of Education.

Myers, I. B. (1962). *Manual: The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator.* Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Pearl, A.., & Reissman, R. (1965). *New careers for the poor: The non-professional in human service.* New York: The Free Press.

Santopolo, F. A., & Kell, K. (1976, July/August). Paraprofessionals: Critical job requirements. *Journal of Extension*, pp. 8-10.

SPSS. (1997). *SPSS Base 7.5 for Windows Users Guide*. Chicago: Author.

Wasik, B. K. (1993). Staffing issues for home visiting programs. *The Future of Children, 3*, 140-157.

Wasik, B. H. (1997). Professional or paraprofessional home visitors? It depends. *Family Futures, 1*(5): 16-18.

Yerka, B. L. (1974). *Effectiveness of paraprofessionals in working with low-income families: An experimental study.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Syracuse University, Syracuse, NY.

Katherine L. Cason, Ph.D., R.D.

Presented at Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

FACULTY PERCEPTIONS OF ACCELERATED AND TRADITIONAL COURSE FORMATS

Marie A. Cini
Janie M. Harden Fritz

ABSTRACT

This questionnaire study assessed the perceptions of faculty about accelerated (eight-week) and traditional (15-week) course formats. Results indicated that faculty spent more time preparing for an accelerated class session than they did a 15-week class session, but did not teach differently in the two types of classes. Faculty reported that students in the accelerated format were better prepared, earned more "A"s and fewer "C"s, and were more socially integrated than students in the traditional course format. Faculty reported no differences in the students' writing ability or in the amount learned in each format. Finally, faculty reported covering more material in the 15-week format, but required more outside work and spent more time on-task in the 8-week format than in the 15-week format.

INTRODUCTION

College classrooms increasingly contain a mix of traditional-age and adult students. Because adults differ from traditional-age students in important ways, including their demographic profile, motivations, and expectations, instructors are being called upon to examine their assumptions and educational practices as they strive to meet adult students' needs (Cini & Fritz, 1997).

A relatively untested assumption in higher education is that the traditional 15-week course represents the optimum time period for learning. Challenging that assumption, a number of colleges and universities have adopted alternate formats to meet the needs of adult students. For example, compressed courses are those taught in longer class sessions and/or in a shorter time frame than the traditional 15-week course (Breckon, 1989). Many universities have adopted compressed formats to allow adult students to move through a degree program expediently.

An example of a modified, compressed format is the Saturday College at Duquesne University. An academic year in Saturday College is comprised of five eight-week terms, and individual classes meet for 3.5 hours. Although students meet with the instructor for 25% fewer hours than in 15-week formats, they are expected to complete more work outside of class. Because students meet for longer class sessions, but for fewer weeks, they can earn credits more quickly than in a traditional format, often earning a baccalaureate degree in four years, while maintaining professional and family responsibilities. Thus, Saturday College is referred to as an accelerated program.

As these and other modifications to the traditional course formats proliferate, particularly in adult education, there is an increasing need to conduct research that can help educators assess the effectiveness of these formats. A logical precursor to studying the effectiveness of innovative formats is studying faculty perceptions of these alternate formats (Brewster-Norman, 1982). Studying faculty perceptions is important because perceptions can affect how faculty teach and how they relate to their students, which, in turn, can impact the learning climate in the classroom (Knowles, 1980).

PURPOSE OF STUDY

This study was designed to explore three questions about faculty perceptions of accelerated and traditional course formats, including

1) What differences, if any, do faculty perceive in their roles in each format?
2) What differences, if any, do faculty perceive in their students' performance in each format?
3) What differences, if any, do faculty perceive in class structure and activities in each format?

METHOD

QUESTIONNAIRE

To measure faculty perceptions of traditional and accelerated formats, a questionnaire was developed by the first author to explore questions regarding faculty role, students' performance, and course structure and activities. Instructors were asked to compare their experiences teaching in an accelerated 8-week format with their experiences in 15-week courses.

Questions regarding faculty perceptions of faculty role concerned (a) amount of time necessary to prepare for class, (b) teaching methods used, (c) cognitive goals emphasized in teaching, (d) reasons for teaching, (e) preferred format, and (f) demographic items. Questions regarding faculty perceptions of student performance focused on (a) how well-prepared students are, (b) quality of students' written work, (c) amount students learn, (d) distribution of course grades, and (e) level of student integration in the program. Questions concerning faculty perceptions of the structure and activities of classes included (a) amount of material covered, (b) amount of class time spent on task, (c) number of hours of outside work required, and (d) type of courses appropriate for each format.

STUDY PARTICIPANTS

Study participants were those Saturday College faculty who had experience teaching in both the accelerated (8-week) and traditional (15-week) formats and who answered the questionnaire fully. This population included both full-time faculty from Duquesne University who also teach in Saturday College, as well as adjunct instructors from the professional community. A cover letter and the questionnaire, along with a postage-paid return envelope, were mailed to all faculty who had previously taught or who were currently teaching in Saturday College (n = 80). After two weeks, a second letter and questionnaire were mailed to the faculty to encourage a higher return rate. In total, 35 completed questionnaires were returned, producing a 44% return rate. Of the questionnaires returned, three were excluded because one respondent had never taught in a 15-week format, and two respondents left more than 50% of the questions blank. Thus, questionnaires from 32 faculty members were included in the study.

Of the 32 respondents, 23 were male and 7 were female. Two respondents did not indicate their sex. Twenty-nine respondents were Caucasian, and three did not indicate their race. Respondents' mean age was 41.6, with a range of 27-60. Respondents had taught, on average, about four times in the accelerated 8-week format and 14 times in 15-week traditional formats. Twelve respondents were full-time faculty at Duquesne University or at another college or university, and 18 were adjunct faculty. Sixteen respondents possessed doctorates, 14 had master's degrees, one had a law degree, and one respondent did not indicate degree type.

RESULTS

The results of this study are categorized according to the three research questions regarding (a) faculty perceptions of faculty role, (b) faculty perceptions of student performance, and (c) faculty perceptions of course structure and activities. Data analyses were conducted using dependent t-tests, Chi square goodness of fit tests, and the McNemar test for equality of proportions.

FACULTY PERCEPTIONS OF FACULTY ROLE

Time to Prepare for Class

Respondents were asked to indicate the number of hours they spent per week preparing for a class session in an 8-week course versus a class session in a 15-week course. Respondents reported preparing significantly longer (t(31) = 2.87, p = .01) for accelerated class sessions (mean = 6.6 hours) than they did for traditional 15-week evening classes (mean = 5.6 hours).

Methods of Teaching

Faculty respondents were also asked to choose the methods of teaching they used in each format. Teaching methods included lectures, handouts, videotapes, class discussions, and small-group work. The sum total of methods that each respondent indicated was calculated. Respondents reported no significant difference (t(30) = .93, p = .36) in the number of teaching methods they used in the accelerated (mean = 4.16) and traditional course formats (mean = 4.35).

Cognitive Goals Emphasized in Teaching

Respondents were asked to indicate which of Bloom and Kratwohl's (1956) taxonomy of six cognitive goals (i.e., recall, application, understanding, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation) they emphasized in the accelerated and traditional formats. The total number of goals that each instructor indicated was calculated. The instructors indicated no significant difference (t(27) = .56, p = .58) in the number of cognitive goals they emphasized in the 8-week format (mean = 4.96) and in the 15-week format (mean = 5.17).

Reasons for Teaching

Faculty were asked to indicate their major reason(s) for teaching in each format. Responses to these open-ended questions were content analyzed according to a coding scheme developed by the researchers. Cohen's kappa, a measure of reliability for nominal data, was .89 for both the 8-week and 15-week formats (p = .00), thus indicating high reliability between the coders. One-third of the respondents reported teaching in either format for the sheer enjoyment of teaching.

Preferred Format

Respondents were asked which format they preferred. Seventeen indicated a preference for the 8-week accelerated format, 10 indicated a preference for the 15-week traditional format, and five indicated no preference. A chi-square goodness-of-fit test indicated no difference between the proportion of respondents who reported a preference for teaching in the 8-week versus the 15-week format (Chi Square (1) = 1.82, p = .18).

FACULTY PERCEPTIONS ABOUT STUDENTS

Student Preparation for Class

Instructors were asked how prepared students were in each format based on a 7-point scale where 1 = "Not At All Prepared" and 7 = "Very Well Prepared." Instructors indicated that the students in the accelerated format classes are significantly (t(29) = 3.35, p = .002) more prepared (mean = 5.5) than students in the 15-week evening format (mean = 4.4).

Quality of Students' Written Work

Instructors were asked to indicate the quality of students' written work based on a 7-point scale where 1 = "Very Low Quality" and 7 = "Very High Quality." Instructors indicated no significant difference (t(24) = 1.79, p = .086) between the quality of students' written work in the 8-week (mean = 4.96) and 15-week formats (mean = 4.56).

Amount Students Learn

Instructors were asked to rate how much students learn in the two formats based on a 7-point scale where 1 = "Very Little" and 7 = "Very Much." Instructors indicated no significant difference (t(29) = .000, p = 1.00) in the amount that students learn in the 8-week (mean = 5.77) and 15-week (mean = 5.77) formats.

Grade Distribution

Instructors were asked to indicate the percentages of As, Bs, Cs, Ds, and Fs that are generally earned by students in each format. Instructors reported that significantly more students in the accelerated format earn an "A" grade (37.5% of students) than do students in the 15-week evening format (28.4% of students) (t(28) = 4.27, p = .000). They also reported that students in the accelerated format earn significantly fewer "C" grades (21.7% of students) than do students in the 15-week evening format (21.7% of students) (t(29) = -3.29, p = .003). No other differences in percentages of grades reported were significant.

Social Integration

Instructors were asked to indicate how well students get to know one another in their courses in the two formats based on a 7-point scale where 1 = "Very Little" and 7 = "Very Much." Instructors reported that students in the accelerated format get to know one another significantly (t(30) = 5.24, p = .000) better (mean = 6.3) than do students in the 15-week evening format (mean = 4.7).

FACULTY PERCEPTIONS OF CLASS STRUCTURE AND ACTIVITIES

Amount of Material Covered

Instructors were asked to indicate how much material they expect to cover they actually cover in their courses in the two formats based on a 7-point scale where 1 = "Very Little" and 7 = "All". Instructors reported that relative to the amount they expect to cover, they cover significantly more material in the 15-week format (mean = 6.2) than they do in accelerated courses (mean = 5.8) (t(31) = -2.611, p = .014). However, in neither format do they cover all the material that they expect to cover.

Outside Work Required of Students

Instructors were asked to indicate how many hours of outside work they require of students in the two formats. They reported that they required significantly more hours of work outside of class in the accelerated format (mean = 6.3 hours) than they required in the 15-week format (mean = 5.07 hours) (t(27) = 2.9, p = .007).

Time Spent On-Task in Class.

Instructors were asked how much available class time they spend on-task in each format based on a 7-point scale where 1 = "Very Little Class Time" and 7 = "All of the Available Class Time." Instructors indicated that they spent significantly more class time on-task in the accelerated classes (mean = 6.0) than they spent on-task in 15-week classes (mean = 5.8) (t(28) = 2.27, p = .031).

Courses Appropriate for Each Format

Instructors were asked to indicate the types of courses that are appropriate for each format from a list that included (a) humanities, (b) social sciences, (c) mathematics, (d) sciences, (e) foreign languages, (f) computer courses, and (g) other. The total number indicated by each respondent was calculated and a dependent t test (t(26) = 3.124, p = .004) indicated that instructors felt that a significantly greater number of subjects can be taught effectively in the 15-week format (mean = 5.6 subjects) than can be taught in the accelerated format (mean = 4.9 subjects). The McNemar test for equality of proportions indicated that instructors felt that the humanities, social sciences, and computer courses were appropriately taught in either format (p = NS). However, instructors indicated that math (p = .031), science (p = .039), and languages (p = .008) are more appropriately taught in a 15-week format than in the accelerated format.

CONCLUSIONS

The results of this study represent positive news for those universities that have adopted or that plan to adopt nontraditional formats for adult students. Faculty members do perceive several differences between the two formats, but most differences indicate that the accelerated format is equally effective to traditional formats, at least in the view of the faculty.

The instructors indicated that students in the accelerated format were better prepared, earned more "A" and fewer "C" grades, and were more socially integrated than were students in the 15-week evening format. However, they indicated no differences in the quality of students' written work. And, interestingly, despite the fact that instructors reported covering less material relative to their expectations in the 8-week format than in the 15-week format, they nevertheless reported that students in both formats learned about the same amount.

The reasons why students in the 8-week accelerated format are perceived to learn the same amount as students in the 15-week format may be tied to other findings in the study. For example, faculty reported requiring more outside work and spending more class time on-task in the 8-week than in the 15-week format. This greater intensity may be a positive by-product of the compressed format. As Breckon (1989) has argued, compressed formats facilitate working without distraction and interruptions, perhaps adding a focus that is missing in a longer format.

Faculty reported that they prepared more for an accelerated class session than they did for a traditional class session, but that their teaching methods were no different in the two formats. This is an intriguing finding, given that several authors (e.g., Brewster-Norman, 1982; Johnson, 1985; Knowles, 1980) have argued that faculty in nontraditional formats need to teach in new ways and, in particular, should foster active student involvement (Breckon, 1989). Faculty did report the use of a wide variety of teaching methods in both formats, but further research to discover the most effective teaching methods for each format is certainly warranted. It may well be that faculty already incorporate active teaching methods in both formats.

The differences found between faculty perceptions of the two formats in this study may be due to at least two different sets of factors. For example, students in the 8-week accelerated format earn more "A" grades and are more socially integrated than students in the 15-week format, according to the faculty respondents. On one hand, the students in the 8-week format may be responding to a set of pressures (e.g., need to complete a degree) that make their experience more intense than those of students in a 15-week format. Thus, they may study harder and rely on one another more for social support than do students in 15-week courses. On the other hand, whereas all the students in the accelerated program in this study are adults (24 or older), it is likely that students in traditional 15-week evening formats are a mixture of adult and traditional-age college students. It may be that the faculty perceptions in this study reflected the differences between an all-adult population in the 8-week format and the mixture of adult and traditional-age students in the 15-week format. A class of all adult students may be more achievement-oriented than a class of mixed adult and traditional-age students. More research is necessary to disentangle differences related to the age of students versus differences related to the format. Overall, however, these results are encouraging for faculty and administrators in adult education programs as they design flexible formats while also seeking to maintain high academic standards.

REFERENCES

Breckon, D. J. (1989). Teaching college courses in compressed formats. *Lifelong Learning: An Omnibus of Practice and Research, 12*(4), 19-20.

Bloom, B. S., & Kratwohl, D. R. (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives: Handbook I, The cognitive domain.* New York: David McKay.

Brewster-Norman, D. (1982). Faculty perceptions of adult learners, off-campus credit programs, and teaching strategies. In R. V. Conter & W. A. Porcelli (Eds.), *Removing barriers to the adult learner: Through marketing, management, and programming. Proccedings of the NUCEA Region VI Conference* (pp. 3-15). (Available from University of Arizona Continuing Education, 1717 E. Speedway, #120I, Tucson, AZ 85719; ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 227 247)

Cini, M. A., & Fritz, J. M. H. (1997). Predicting commitment in adult and traditional-age students: Applying Rusbult's investment model to the study of retention. *Journal of Public Management and Social Policy, 3*(1), 66-76.

Johnson, S. E. (1985). Faculty perspectives on outreach teaching. *Lifelong Learning: An Omnibus of Practice and Research, 9*(3), 11-13, 27.

Knowles, M. S. (1980). *The modern practice of adult education: From pedagogy to andragogy* (2nd ed.). New York: Cambridge.

Marie A. Cini, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Leadership Studies, & Janie M. Harden Fritz, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Communication, Duquesne University, 6000 Forbes Avenue, Pittsburgh, PA, 15282.

Our thanks to Marianne Leister and Andrea Lex who provided helpful advice on earlier versions of this manuscript.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

A COMPARISON OF MEZIROW'S TRANSFORMATION THEORY AND THE CHANGE PROCESS EXPERIENCED BY FEMALE ENTREPRENEURS

H. Elizabeth Coyle
Andrea Ellinger

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this qualitative pilot study was to understand how female entrepreneurs make meaning of their experience of change as a result of starting their own businesses, and to determine if Mezirow's (1978, 1990, 1991) transformation theory adequately explains this change process for four women purposefully selected to participate in this research. A phenomenological theoretical perspective and a naturalistic design guided this study. Open-ended, face-to-face interviews were the primary methods of data collection. The interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim and were analyzed using thematic analysis. The findings that emerged from this pilot study indicate that these women described their change process in relation to the meaningful relationships in their lives, and within the context of their connections to others. These women also described this change process as an ongoing, dynamic, and fluid process rather than a singular event. A preliminary conclusion drawn from this pilot study is that Mezirow's transformation theory does not adequately explain the change process for these women as they experience becoming entrepreneurs. Implications for adult education practice and a future research agenda are provided.

INTRODUCTION

A considerable base of literature has been published on the subject of self-employment and small business ownership; yet, most of the research has concentrated upon the male-owned enterprise. In contrast, current trends project that, by 2000, half of all businesses will be owned by women (Ando, 1990). While research on female entrepreneurs is increasing, more often than not female entrepreneurs remain largely invisible in the scholarly literature (Godfrey, 1992). In the past few years, there has been an increased focus on research examining the traits, behaviors, barriers, and strategies to overcome the transition of starting a new venture as a female entrepreneur. However, to date, no empirical studies have been done that specifically explore how women have changed as a result of starting their own business ventures, nor have studies offered insight into how women describe the changes they experience. Considering that women now own 7.7 million firms, employ 15.5 million workers, and generate 1.4 trillion dollars in sales (National Foundation for Women Business Owners, as cited in Moore & Buttner, 1997), it is imperative that research continues to explore the phenomena of female entrepreneurship, and specifically the meaning that female entrepreneurs make of the experiences of venturing out on their own.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

To better understand how female entrepreneurs make meaning of their experience of change as a result of starting their own businesses, three main bodies of literature were reviewed: female entrepreneurs, transformational learning theory, and women's ways of knowing. The limited research that has been conducted on female entrepreneurs has typically focused on the investigation of determinants of success. A number of researchers have attempted to determine the traits of successful female entrepreneurs (Buttner & Moore, 1997; Kamau, McLean, & Ardishvillie, 1999; Olson & Currie, 1992; Smoot-Egan, 1996) and the family background and management skills that impacted on their success (Hisrich & Brush, 1987). Two further areas explored are the degree of risk perceived by the women (Godfrey, 1992) and the motivations for the start up of their businesses (Allen & Truman, 1993; Carter & Cannon, 1992; Godfrey, 1992;

Olson & Currie, 1992). Finally, how these women make decisions during daily operations (Kamau et al., 1999) and the types of networking systems employed by them (Kamau et al., 1999; Moore & Buttner, 1997) have further been investigated. However, a review of the research to date has not yielded any conclusive determinants of success and only a beginning understanding of the particular importance women place on the use of relationships during the decision-making process and networking has emerged. No studies have been found that focus specifically on the meaning making of female entrepreneurs' experience of change as a result of starting their own businesses.

The adult education literature, however, has investigated how adults broadly experience transformation through the lens of transformational theory (Boyd & Myers, 1988; Clark, 1992; Courtenay, Merriam, & Reeves, 1998; McDonald, 1998; Mezirow, 1978; Taylor, 1997). Mezirow (1991) has offered the most comprehensive theory of the process of change through perspective transformation. However, Mezirow has been criticized for emphasizing the rational aspects of transformation at the expense of not considering other ways of knowing (Boyd & Myers, 1988) and for not giving sufficient attention to the social context in which transformation occurs (Clark & Wilson, 1991; Welton, 1990). Further, only a limited body of research has been conducted that identifies the need for a stage of readiness in order for perspective transformation to occur (Courtena et al., 1998; Hunter, 1980). And lastly, while women have been included as participants in such research studies, female entrepreneurs, in particular, have not been researched in relation to this literature.

Lastly, during the last three decades, there has been an increased focus on understanding the meanings women attach to their experiences. How they define themselves (Baker Miller, 1986; Surrey, 1987), how they embed themselves within the context of their relationships (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986; Gilligan, 1982; Luttrell, 1989), and how feelings of work competence are grounded within the mutuality of relationships (Fletcher, 1999; Jordan, 1992) have all been explored. While an understanding of how women as a whole make meaning of their experiences and how they create knowledge, and a broad understanding of the transformation experience in adults in general is beginning to emerge, this phenomenon for female entrepreneurs has not been researched.

METHODOLOGY

A phenomenological theoretical perspective and naturalistic design were employed for this pilot study. Four female entrepreneurs were purposefully selected for this study (Patton, 1990). They were selected based on the following criteria. They were: sole proprietors of their own business; had been in business for at least five years; and, broadly described their experience of starting and running their business as having changed them. Open-ended, face-to-face interviews were conducted as the primary method of data collection. Interviews were tape recorded and were transcribed verbatim. Follow-up interviews were conducted to ensure authenticity. The transcripts were analyzed using thematic coding (Bodgan & Biklen, 1992). Data collection and analysis were conducted rigorously to ensure trustworthiness (Marshall & Rossman, 1995; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Due to the purposeful nature of the sample and the limited focus on sole proprietorships, the findings associated with this study, however, are not intended to be generalizable.

FINDINGS

This study explored the meaning making of the change process experienced by four female entrepreneurs as a result of starting and running their own business. Seven themes emerged from the data set. These themes and illustrative quotations are provided.

MEANING MAKING OF THE CHANGE PROCESS WITHIN A CONNECTED SELF

The first theme that emerged from the data was how the women made meaning of the changes they experienced within the context of the meaningful relationships they had with others rather than as a separate, individual process. Changes in confidence and self-assurance were noted in relation to interactions and connections to family, friends, and customers. For example, Barbara said, "As I found that I could go into almost any place and I could still make a connection, whether it is an audience of 250 or whether it was an audience of 10, . . . that started to increase my confidence." Similarly, Marcie acknowledged, "Because you grow more than just knowing techniques. You grow with the person that you're with, your clients. . . . It ends up being a mutual give and take."

These women also described the change experience of finding greater integration among all of the meaningful relationships in their lives and of finding a greater balance in their lives as a result of starting their own business. Barbara, a single parent raising two young children while operating her business, was able to find integration and balance between home and work. She said, "I think that's the other aspect of having your own business. That your business life and your personal life really become intermingled." While Sharon's children are grown now, she recalled how entrepreneurship helped her juggle home and work when her children were younger, "I have it [my business] here in the house so I can work my own hours. . . . It was really nice when they [my children] were younger, because I was here in the house when they came home from school. I was always here."

All of the women were asked to define a high point in their business. Once again, the women cited examples that showed a defining of a changed self within the context of relationships that held meaning and importance for them. Marcie described her high point within the context of helping others "seeing more people come in here and enjoying the therapy. And some come in grumpy with their arms crossed. . . . So sometimes you can change people's lives. I don't do it just to give them information." Elise noted that helping other people make connections creates the positive moments in her workday, "It's when people are making connections into getting an 'ah ha' about themselves. And that's a high point for me." Finally, all of the women described their processes of change in fluid, dynamic terms rather than as a singular moment in time or a linear process,"a never ending story of learning," "changing and fun," and "a work in progress."

PRECIPITATING EVENTS AND READINESS WITHIN THE TOTAL CONTEXT OF LIFE

Two of the four participants indicated that job loss was the specific event that precipitated the starting of their business. Marcie described the experience as a "free fall." When Sharon's husband lost his job in the printing business, they explored various types of franchises and decided on the rubber stamp business. However, the other two women did not recall any specific precipitating event but rather a more subtle process. Elise's comments captured the ongoing process involved in readying herself for the start-up of her business when she said, "But what led me to doing what I am doing now is just a whole series of events. . . . It's such an evolvement. It's not something that happens overnight. . . . Those mentors helped me along. Not specifically saying it out loud, but just kind of nudging me down my path." Barbara did not find there was any "particular life changing event."

All but one of the women felt the totality of their life experiences set the stage for their readiness to start their business. It was through the tapestry of the people and events of their lives that readiness to start the business venture was created. Except for Sharon, the women believed that the change process could not have occurred without this time of preparation. Marcie noted, "I kept falling into things. . . . It was fate. Everything fell in place. It just snowballed." Barbara described an internal process of preparation, "You muddle around with it in your head, and you get ready for that. . . . That was always being thought about for a long period of time before." Elise emphasized the ongoing process of readiness that occurred through introspection and through the influence of the people in her life, "There were years of preparation. Every experience, every book I've read. Every thought I've had. Every person I've met, every place I've gone. My children. Every person who has been in my life. It's all preparation for who I am today. This just didn't happen."

NETWORKS AS A MEANS OF SOCIAL SUPPORT

All of the women were asked who they utilized as a network to discuss the changes they were experiencing as a result of starting their own business. They all cited informal networks of family, friends, neighbors, and colleagues as their main choice to discuss the changes they were experiencing rather than utilizing formal networks. Additionally, all of the women stressed the emotional support these networks provided as well.

In addition to the three themes cited above, four secondary themes also emerged that relate to the research findings regarding female entrepreneurs and women's ways of knowing: traits, risk-taking behavior, motivation, and decision-making. The women identified a number of traits that they believed contributed to their desire to start their own businesses: "drive," "spit fire," "strong faith," "the right inner space," "faith that you're going to make it," "curiosity and love of information," "purposefulness," "a gift of discernment," "passion for my work," and "the need to feel connected to people." There was also a mixture within the findings as to whether the participants perceived their business venture as a high-risk endeavor or as a calculated risk. Elise never even mentioned the risk involved. Marcie saw starting her own business as a high-risk experience. However, two participants saw it only as a moderate risk. Barbara indicated, "I think part of what I remember is never really being too concerned about risks." Sharon recalled thinking, "What's the worst that could happen? . . . My children won't go without shoes."

The four women were motivated to start their own business and continue their work because their ventures allowed them to balance work and family responsibilities, to help others, and because it provided an outlet for their passion for their work. All four of the women discussed at length the benefits of being able to manage family and work more effectively as a result of starting their own businesses. This continued to be an ongoing motivator, as well. Additionally, work offered a way to remain connected throughout their whole life rather than have it be a separate part of their lives. The desire for connectedness in their lives also was a strong motivator in relation to being able to help others in very specific ways. Elise indicated, "I help others feel good about themselves. . . . I help others look at themselves in a different way." Helping others learn was a strong motivator for Barbara as well, "I care about clients and connect with the audience. I help folks continue to learn." The fulfillment of helping customers and clients was a strong ongoing motivator for Sharon too, "My greatest concern is pleasing the customer." These women were also driven by the fact that their work helped define who they are and provided an outlet for their passions. Elise spoke clearly of the meaning that work held for her, "I feel strongly about women doing the kind of work that they love to do. . . . When I am purposeful and connected to myself, I can connect to my clients." Barbara's passion for her work spilled out in front of her audiences, "I get a rush in front of the audience. . . . Because if I don't have that rush, or whatever you want to call it from working with folks, you don't feel like you've accomplished what you need to accomplish."

Finally, all of the participants stressed their use of intuition and feelings when making decisions about their businesses and deciding how to best serve their customers and clients. Elise noted the importance of utilizing her feelings along with her rational side in making decisions, "And so that feeling side, you can have all the logic you want in the world, but it's not always accurate because you have to make the connection somehow to peoples' real thoughts and real feelings." Sharon highlighted the use of instinct and intuition in her daily decision making, "[When I first got started,] I knew nothing. . . . A lot of it I just do by gut feeling, . . . and I sort of have, like, intuition of what a woman would want. . . . Sometimes I try to read my customer. Sometimes I'm off the mark and sometimes I'm right on."

CONCLUSIONS

The first major conclusion of this study was that the women made meaning of their change experience within the context of their connections to others. Their narratives depicted a changed self situated in a complexity of relationships, greater ability to integrate the relationships in their lives, and a dynamic, fluid, and ongoing change process. Although these preliminary findings do not offer support for Mezirow's theory (1978, 1990, 1991), they do support the women's ways of knowing literature that depicts relationships as a central theme of women's lives. Additionally, some of the findings offered support for the female entrepreneurship literature.

In contrast to Mezirow (1978, 1990, 1991), a linear, rational process was not described by these women. Rather a fluid, on-going, dynamic process of change was articulated. These women also spoke about other non-rational ways of knowing to understand the changes they had experienced, used informal rather than formal networks of support to discuss their changes, and saw the totality of their life experiences as readying them for the change process rather than a singular precipitating event. These preliminary findings seem to contradict Mezirow. However, the theme of connection with others and a desire to help others reflects similar findings in the women's ways of knowing literature. Relative to the female entrepreneur research, the motivation for starting and running their own businesses centered on three themes for the women in this study: balancing work and family, self-fulfillment by helping others, and work as an outlet for their desire to help others. No defined set of traits emerged that would account for their success. These two findings mirror the research results in the female entrepreneur literature that has been inconclusive in determining specific motivations for success and traits determinants of success. The findings that the women utilized intuition and feelings in their decision making confirms similar findings in the female entrepreneur literature.

In summary, despite the limitations associated with this pilot study, some preliminary implications can be drawn for future practice and research. From a practice perspective, programs that are developed to inform and support the start up of business ventures by women should consider centrally locating the discussions and support within a contextual framework of relationships that hold meaning for the women. From a research perspective, future studies of female entrepreneurs should take into account the central role that relationships play in defining of self and women's motivations, and the networks to support success. Further study of the female entrepreneur population would provide future female entrepreneurs, as well as those currently in business for themselves, a greater understanding of what it takes to meet with success and the barriers that they must be overcome. It would also provide the entrepreneurship literature with a more diversified understanding of entrepreneurship rather than viewing it from a predominantly male perspective.

REFERENCES

Allen, S., & Truman, C. (1993). *Women in business: Perspectives.* London: Routledge.

Ando, F. (1990). Women in business. In S. E. Rix (Ed.), *The American woman 1990-1991* (pp. 222-230). New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Baker Miller, J. (1986). *What do we mean by relationship?* (Working Paper No. 22). Wellesley, MA: Wellesley College, The Stone Center.

Belenky, M. F., Clinchy, B. M., Goldberger, N. R., & Tarule, J. M. (1986). *Women's ways of knowing: The development of self, voice, and mind.* New York: Basic Books.

Bogden, R., & Biklen, S. (1992). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Boyd, R. D., & Myers, J. G. (1988). Transformative education. *International Journal of Lifelong Education, 7,* 261-284.

Buttner, H., & Moore, D. (1997). Women's organizational exodus to entrepreneurship: Self-reported motivations and correlates with success. *Journal of Small Business Management, 35*(1), 34-47.

Carter, S., & Cannon, T. (1992). *Women as entrepreneurs: A study of female business owners, their motivations, experiences and strategies for success.* London: Academic Press.

Clark, C. M. (1992). Changing course: Initiating the transformational learning process. In D. Flannery (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 34th Annual Adult Education Research Conference* (pp. 78-83). University Park, PA: Pennsylvania State University.

Clark, C. M., & Wilson, A. L. (1991). Context and rationality in Mezirow's theory of perspective transformational learning. *Adult Education Quarterly, 40,* 75-91.

Courtenay, B. C., Merriam, S. B., & Reeves, P. M. (1998). The centrality of meaning making in transformational learning: How HIV-positive adults make sense of their lives. *Adult Education Quarterly, 48,* 65-84.

Fletcher, J. K. (1999). *Disappearing acts: Gender, power, and relational practice at work.* Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.

Gilligan, C. (1982). *In a different voice: Psychological theory and women's development.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Godfrey, J. (1992). *Our wildest dreams: Women entrepreneurs making money, having fun, doing good.* New York: Harper Collins Publishers.

Hisrich, R., & Brush, C. (1987). Women entrepreneurs: A longitudinal study. In N. C. Churchill, J. Hornaday, B. A. Kirchhoff, O. J. Krasner, & K. H. Vesper (Eds.), *Frontiers of entrepreneurship research* (pp. 187-199). Wellesley, MA: Babson College, Center for Entrepreneurial Studies.

Hunter, E. K. (1980). *Perspective transformation in health practices: A study in adult learning and fundamental life change.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles.

Jordan, J. (1992). *Relational resilience* (Work in Progress, No. 57). Wellesley, MA: The Stone Center. (Stone Center Working Paper Series)

Kamau, D., McLean, G., & Ardishvillie, A. (1999). Women entrepreneurs: Maintaining business success through human resource development. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 18*, 753-761.

Lincoln, Y., & Guba, E. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Luttrell, W. (1989). Working-class women's ways of knowing: Effects of gender, race, and class. *Sociology of Education, 62*, 33-46.

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (1995). *Designing qualitative research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

McDonald, B. L. (1998). *A comparison of Mezirow's transformation theory with the process of learning to become an ethical vegan.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia, Athens.

Mezirow, J. (1978). *Education for perspective transformation: Women's re-entry programs in community colleges.* New York: Teacher's College, Columbia University.

Mezirow, J. & Associates. (Eds.). (1990). *Fostering critical reflection in adulthood.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mezirow, J. (1991). *Transformative dimensions of adult learning.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Moore, D., & Buttner, H. (1997). *Moving beyond the glass ceiling.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Olson, S., & Currie, H. (1992). Female entrepreneurs: Personal value systems and business strategies in a male-dominated industry. *Journal of Small Business Management, 30*(1), 49-56.

Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Smoot-Egan, K. (1996). Flexible mentoring: Adaptations in style for women's ways of knowing. *The Journal of Business Communication, 33*, 401-425.

Surrey, J. (1987). *Relationship and empowerment* (Working Paper No. 30). Welleslely, MA: Wellesley College, The Stone Center.

Taylor, E. W. (1997). Building upon the theoretical debate: A critical review of the empirical studies of Mezirow's transformative theory. *Adult Education Quarterly, 48*, 34-59.

Welton, M. (1990). Shaking the foundations: Critical perspectives on adult development and learning. Unpublished manuscript.

H. Elizabeth Coyle, Doctoral Candidate, Adult Education, Penn State Harrisburg, 777 W. Harrisburg Pike, Middletown, PA 17057

Dr. Andrea Ellinger, Assistant Professor of Adult Education and Local Program Coordinator, Penn State Harrisburg, 777 W. Harrisburg Pike, Middletown, PA 17057

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

BLURRING THE BOUNDARIES BETWEEN ACQUISITION AND LEARNING: TELEVISION-BASED LITERACY SERVICES IN COMMUNITY AND HOME CONTEXTS

Deborah D'Amico
Maura Donnelly

ABSTRACT

For adult learners, the relationship between life outside the adult education classroom and learning in class is problematic, even oppositional. This results in low attendance and enrollment relative to the need for adult education, and negatively affects learning outcomes. Research on learning and acquisition, on situated learning in communities of practice, and on changing literacy practices in the lives of adult learners, point adult education toward a range of informal learning contexts beyond the classroom. This paper reviews the pilot year experiences of TV411, a media-based national literacy service for pre-GED learners that embeds learning in real life contexts and includes a community outreach component that provides materials in both educational and less formal learning environments. Pilot year research suggests that television and video, along with a carefully nurtured community component, can increase exposure to opportunities for literacy practice and frequency of engagement in such practices, as well as change adults' conceptions of themselves as learners. Documentation and evaluation of pilot year activities have implications for the future form and content of adult education, for using technology effectively in the field, and for reaching the vast majority of learners who do not enroll in classes.

INTRODUCTION

> At the age of five, you had to please the teacher to survive.
> The outside world beckoned me through the glass.
> Stronger than the Spelling I could never grasp. . . .
> I could dream of building a church, walking through the grass,
> things outside of class. . . .
> Some sort of curse to notice all this,
> with sights and sounds all around?
> These are the things the teacher missed. (Quoted in Elliot, 1999)

The above excerpt is from a poem written by an Irish adult learner, a participant in a home based tutoring program. The poem's title, *Things the Teacher Missed*, juxtaposes the imaginative and sensual force of the world beyond the classroom with the teacher's demand that her young pupils "concentrate in a class full of windows." For adult learners, the classroom environment poses even more challenges. In a recent article summarizing the findings of research and practice in adult education, Imel (1996) notes that "only 8% of eligible adults participate in funded education programs, and, of those that do, most (74 percent) leave during the first year." Although many of the reasons for this behavior lie in the complex lives of adult learners, discomfort with the classroom itself also plays a part.

Inspired by the success of popular literacy campaigns in Cuba and Brazil, many adult educators have long advocated for participatory curriculum and pedagogy focused on issues and actions of concern to adult learners and situated in community and home based learning environments. Despite these efforts, classrooms remain firmly fixed as not only where, but *how* literacy instruction is provided. However, recent economic, political and technological changes have forced a re-examination of conventional classrooms as the primary delivery system for adult education. The Workforce Investment Act (WIA) situates adult education funding within the contexts of work and family literacy, and requires reporting of both academic and employment outcomes. Local interpretations of both the Personal Responsibility Act and the WIA have reduced the amount of time learners on public assistance can spend in classrooms and have changed the focus of curriculum to reflect the work-based imperatives of the political climate. At the same time, adult educators have begun to incorporate new technologies, including video and computer based learning, into their instruction. All of these developments have helped to connect the classroom to the world outside its windows and thus to blur the boundaries between learning and acquisition.

Adult education research and theory also encourage a re-thinking of how and where adult education takes place. In a listserv discussion last year, Beder (personal communication, December 6, 1998) quoted Gee (1996) on the two processes necessary to becoming literate: acquisition and learning:

> *Acquisition* is a process of acquiring something, usually subconsciously and without formal teaching, by exposure to models, the experience of trial and error, or practice within social groups. Acquisition occurs in settings that are meaningful and functional in the lives of individuals acquiring the knowledge. *Learning*, in contrast, involves conscious knowledge gained through teaching (but not necessarily by someone who is a teacher by profession), or through life experiences that trigger conscious reflection. Learning involves explicit explanation and analysis, breaking things to be learned into parts, and attaining a level of meta-knowledge about what is taught. According to Gee, although we attain most of our skills through some mixture of acquisition and learning, we are better at performing these activities if acquisition predominated over learning during that time. (pp. 138-139)

Beder (personal communication, December 6, 1998), echoing the classroom/outside world dichotomy posed in the poem above, used Gee's (1996) definitions to raise the following provocative questions for adult educators:

> The basic skills approach focuses almost exclusively on what Gee calls learning. . . . Without some meaningful connection to an acquisition context outside of class, can meaningful literacy gains be expected for adult students who receive only a weekly average of 6 hours of basic skills instruction? Family literacy and workplace literacy have assumed acquisition contexts, but are they meaningfully engaged by adult students? Acquisition may be the critical missing link of adult literacy education. What do we do about that?

MOVING LEARNING BEYOND THE CLASSROOM

Expanding efforts to develop literacy beyond the conventional classroom is one way to change the balance between acquisition and learning. Bringing the outside world into the classroom, via media and computer technology, and moving instruction beyond the physical walls of educational settings generates a more fluid relationship between learning environments and the worlds of adult learners. Television and video expand a teacher's resources, making it possible to bring celebrity speakers, adult learner role models, and real-life contexts, such as looking under the hood of a car, into the classroom. These media also make it possible to use graphics and animation to explain complex concepts, and to comfortably visit and experience such literacy rich settings as bookstores and libraries. The Adult Literacy Media Alliance (ALMA) created TV411 to be the centerpiece of a television and video based national literacy service. TV411's curriculum is recursive and iterative, rather than scope and sequence, and is based on extensive research with adult learners and practitioners concerning both the skills and contexts most relevant to the target audience. Three themes--parenting, money and health--emerged from this work as critical to adult learners and to the literacy challenges they face. The magazine style format mimics familiar television genres, such as situation comedies, music videos, sports, drama, and news shows, placing learning in a comfortable and pleasurable context.

TV411 video and print materials can be used in a range of settings with varying support for learners. Examples include a class with intensive support by a literacy professional, a group meeting in a community organization facilitated by providers such as job counselors, health care workers, etc., or self-directed, home-based learning settings with informal assistance from family and friends. As of fall 1999, enough PBS stations will carry TV411 to reach half of all U.S. households. During its pilot year, ALMA partnered with four cities and two states to distribute TV411 video and print to more than 200 community partners, including both literacy and non-literacy organizations. Such organizations are ALMA "hubs" and their staffs receive training in how to use TV411 materials to offer literacy support within the context of their work. Taken together, the situation-based content of TV411, its familiar television format, and ALMA's community partners embed literacy acquisition in a range of everyday activities and settings. We envision our materials being used at the point of literacy challenge, when literacy looms as an obstacle to something an adult needs or wants to do, such as complete an application, read a lease, apply for a job, compose a letter, or read to children. Use may take the form of *modeling*, after a learner sees someone address this challenge in a parallel situation on the show. Alternatively, a literacy helper may use our print materials to provide *practice within a context of scaffolding and support* in a local clinic or in a government office where many forms must be deciphered and filled out.

In this way, our approach to literacy draws on social theories of learning, such as the work of Wenger (1998) on communities of practice, and of Lave and Wenger (1991) on situated learning. These ideas place learning "in the context of our lived experienced of participation in the world," addressing Beder's question concerning acquisition contexts for adult learners. To understand how skills and knowledge are acquired in settings other than conventional classrooms, Lave and Wenger (1991) look at learning in the context of activities associated with apprenticeships in different social and cultural settings. Apprenticeship is used to cover formal apprenticeship programs organized by trade or profession, as well as the less formal process by which a newcomer learns and masters the rules, knowledge, language and skills necessary to becoming a full member of a social group (such as Alcoholics Anonymous). Such groups, formal and informal, to which we all belong, are what Wenger (1998) calls "communities of practice." Learning as social participation refers to becoming active participants in the practices of social communities and constructing identities in relation to these communities. With respect to adults learning to be participants in the literate community, Fingeret and Drennon (1997) have written about the ways in which this reshapes their identities and the constellations of relationships (or communities of practice) in which they participate. They note that adult students request activities similar to apprenticeships when they ask for assistance with literacy challenges outside the classroom.

For those who understand learning in this way, "What looks promising are inventive ways of engaging students in meaningful practices, of providing resources that enhance their participation, of opening their horizons so that they can put themselves on learning trajectories they can identify with, and of involving them in actions, discussions, and reflections that make a difference in the communities that they value" (Wenger, 1998, p. 10)." ALMA has created a video and broadcast series that models such opportunities, print and web resources that center learning in the everyday experiences of our target audience, and a community of organizations in its pilot cities that offer opportunities to develop new practices with others. We seek to create new acquisition contexts by having our materials in non-educational settings and by encouraging educators to use them to move learning beyond the classroom. We hope to accomplish these goals by offering portable, flexible materials that multiply opportunities to engage in literacy practices in a range of home and community contexts. What have been the results thus far?

Currently, ALMA staff is documenting how TV411 is being used in its hubs, through a telephone survey, site visits, staff development, and training. An outside research team, the Institute for Social Research of the University of Michigan (ISR), is engaged in pilot studies of learning outcomes among adults using TV411 in settings which vary along a continuum of support.

Based on preliminary findings of ALMA's documentation research, TV411 materials are primarily used in the following settings: adult education and literacy programs (40); family literacy, such as Even Start and Head Start programs and K-12 parenting programs (26); libraries (22); welfare-to-work, job training, union, labor-management joint funds, and workplace programs (20); multiservice community based organizations (17); health settings, such as clinics and hospitals (12); corrections, including work release programs, detention centers, and prisons (5); and housing projects or homeless shelters (5). Classification is approximate because many hubs house a number of different kinds of programs and some are using TV411 in literacy programs within other kinds of institutions. Responses to a survey question that asked hub staff to indicate what populations their organizations serve resulted in the following numbers: the general public (142 hubs); adult learners (120); workers (21) and other populations (35). Hub research further indicates that TV411 is being used in a range of service activities with youth, parents, ex-offenders, dislocated workers, homeless individuals and public assistance recipients.

TV411 has been adapted to an array of settings, lending itself to use in regularly scheduled classes or in a highly individualized fashion. For example, in a welfare-to-work program in the South Bronx where literacy classes alternate with work experience, TV411 enlivens classroom discussions in the post-lunch lull and supports résumé writing and job seeking skills. Alternately, TV411 is used whenever the opportunity arises at a Brooklyn drop-in center for adults seeking computer skills and job counseling. South Seattle Community College and other sites are creating local wrap arounds and offering TV411 as a distance learning class. While a number of our hubs are libraries who have a circulation system in place, other hubs have created simple sign-in sheets to make it easy for learners to take videos home for an agreed upon time. For example, at a reemployment training center in Pittsburgh and a Seattle workplace, workers attending basic skills classes can borrow videos and use them with TV411 In Print at home. You will find TV411 tapes running in a large public hospital in New York, in a New York City councilwoman's office, in Goodwill stores in Pittsburgh, and in a workforce development center in El Paso. Adult education, literacy, and job training programs use our materials with pre-GED learners, and in some cases with learners at higher or lower levels who need specific skills that are modeled and taught in our materials. Teachers in these programs may incorporate TV411 into their existing curriculum, use it as a course, as a skills adjunct to training or a pre-training prep course, or as a way to combine literacy learning with contextualized life skills. TV411 is used in literacy components of programs that combine education with work experience, or in job search efforts that support employment among public assistance recipients. At some of our hubs, TV411 has become part of the meetings of ongoing groups, such as parenting groups in K-12 schools in El Paso and New York, and parent support centers throughout Pittsburgh. Our materials are also used by a Pittsburgh health education center that fosters partnerships in prevention and operates a neighborhood peacemaker program. TV411 has been used at fairs, orientations, topical health workshops and other one time or periodic events. In South Carolina, Even Start workers bring TV411 to the homes of participating families. Finally, in prisons, welfare to work programs, substance abuse programs, family advocacy groups, homeless shelters and community organizations, TV411 is being used to merge literacy and life skills learning.

Data from calls and site visits to 57 of New York City's 84 hubs (68%) over the past year indicate the extent to which TV411 is reaching learners in new places and in new ways. *Thirty one, or 54% of the 57 hubs contacted, are organizations whose main purpose is not education.* This number includes, for example, 2 hospitals, 3 dislocated worker one-stop centers, 8 homeless shelters or drop-in centers for the homeless, 11 programs providing services to parents and one to youth in the K-12 system, and a tenant's association using TV411 to teach life skills. Some of these places have set up classes, but do not have classrooms (shelters, for example). Others, like the parenting programs in K-12, are in classrooms and are like classes, but are reaching new populations (i.e., those not enrolled in adult education programs per se). Providers in these non-educational hubs cite the life skills content and moving stories of adult learners as the features of TV411 that facilitate its use with their participants.

Seventeen of the hubs surveyed or visited are adult education programs using TV411 in classes. Seven of these are extending use to other settings with lending, screenings, use at orientation, use with non-traditional and non-formal education groups, etc. Nine are library literacy programs, four of which are extending use through lending and circulating. *Together, of these 26 education settings (library literacy and adult education combined), 11, or 42%, are extending instruction beyond the class or tutoring group using TV411.*

Combining the 31 hubs in non-traditional settings and the 11 adult education and library literacy hubs who extend TV411 use beyond the classroom brings the total number of these New York hubs who are using TV411 to reach adults in new ways and in new places to 42, or 74%. In addition, we are finding that staff of some of these hubs are bringing TV411 materials to organizations not on our official hub list, including a job center for public assistance recipients, a prison, and a church.

Some hubs report that they are presently not using TV, though they have in the past and intend to in the future; others have ideas for extending TV411's use into other parts of their organizations or communities. In many cases, these respondents indicate a need more training, staff and resources to maximize their use of TV411. Ten of those not using TV411 now or as much as they would like cited staffing issues, such as staff turnover and too few staff as the reasons for lack of use. Two weren't using the materials due to equipment problems, and three due to internal problems, such as workplace politics and disruption caused by construction work. Those with new staff wanted training for these individuals, while many who had attended past ALMA trainings requested technical assistance and site visits. The hubs surveyed included only two sites no longer interested in using TV411 at all. In both cases, this was because TV411 did not work with their beginning ESL students.

Only two sites are using TV411 with learners in their homes, and in both cases the work is too new to report findings. At present, ALMA does not have data on those watching the show at home, though random surveys indicate an average viewership per broadcast of 12,731 in New York City, 3626 in Pittsburgh and 1509 in Seattle. The largest number of viewers on a single day, 53,138, was reported for New York City on 7/2/99. We hope to learn more about home use through both our documentation research on hubs and through our evaluation studies of home use.

In places where TV411 is not in classroom settings, such as on the borough of Staten Island in New York, hub staff are experimenting with different ways of reaching and supporting adult learners. Staten Island Community Television airs TV411, and also produced a show, featuring hub staff and contact information, aimed at attracting viewers. Staten Island Cable promotes the show on its cable network and in the local TV Guide. Staten Island University Hospital has used TV411 with employees during lunchtime, with recovering substance abusers in counseling, and in its Community Wellness Center. An outreach nurse takes it to community sites such as a halfway house for women who are recovering from drug abuse. She reports that after a year of use the women are reading regularly, writing poetry, and now describe themselves as "reading addicts." Recently, when a professional library staff person who had used TV411 in a Manhattan library literacy program transferred to Staten Island, the library literacy program began using TV411. On this borough, a synergy between television broadcasting and non-traditional use has emerged that both speaks to the potential of TV411 and to the difficulty of capturing its impact. We don't know how many are watching the show on TV and what impact it has on their lives. Nor do we know the results of the casual exposure to TV411 that employees or those who see it in the mall's Wellness Center experience. The women in the halfway house program are reluctant to have visitors due to the stigma attached to drug use. This points to some of the issues that getting out of educational settings raises for monitoring, assessment, and evaluation. There is a fundamental contradiction that teaching outside of educational settings poses for our notions of learning outcomes.

The ISR evaluators have tried to address this by setting up types of learning environments for purposes of evaluation. The first of these created a pilot for a "facilitated group" model, in which a group of learners met for 10 weeks, watched a show together, and worked with TV411 print. A facilitator was present, but did not attempt to teach from her own curriculum. Instead, she responded to questions from learners about what they wanted to work on, or about problems they encountered in their work. Findings from pretests and posttests, interviews, and other data indicate that individuals do learn some things from just watching the videos, that they significantly changed their concept of themselves as lifelong learners, that they learned some of the specific skills and content taught by TV411, and that they increased the frequency of literacy practices and behaviors promoted by the show (Johnston, Young, & Petty, 1999). New pilot studies by ISR of individuals working at home with partners, with minimal support, and with access to telephone or drop-in assistance are scheduled for early 2000.

EXPANDING LITERACY EDUCATION BEYOND THE CLASSROOM: IMPLICATIONS FOR ADULT EDUCATION PRACTICE AND POLICY

Early data from TV411's pilot phase supports ALMA's goals of expanding the capacity of communities to support adult learning and of reaching and teaching more adult learners. The pilot study exploring the impact of TV411 on learners indicates that the materials increase the frequency and variety of literacy practices and promote attitudes and beliefs that encourage lifelong learning. Findings from hub research in non-educational settings suggest that training, technical assistance and relevant materials can foster new acquisition contexts for adult learners. However, organizational staffing and resources, as well as the assistance that ALMA can provide, directly affect the extent to which TV411 is used, as well as the ability to create authentic opportunities for engaging in literacy practices. This is especially the case with organizations whose mission is other than education, such as hospitals. Technology enables the extension of literacy education beyond the classroom and into homes and communities, but only if formulas for funding and evaluating literacy services recognize and support less formal acquisition contexts. Truly contextualizing literacy in such settings requires that policymakers, practitioners, and interested community partners reconceptualize funding, accountability, and outcome measures. ALMA's experience thus far contributes to this re-thinking. We hope to continue to learn from TV411 users how best to support adults in and out of classrooms as they strive for membership in the literate community.

REFERENCES

Elliot, L. (1999) Irish visitor in Atlanta. *Text Quarterly, 11*(4), 9-10.

Fingeret, H. A., & Drennon, C. (1997) *Literacy for life: Adult learners, new practices.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University.

Gee, J. P. (1996). *Social linguistics and literacies: Ideology in discourses.* Bristol, PA: Falmer Press.

Imel, S. (1996). *Adult literacy education: Emerging directions in program development* (ERIC Digest, No. 179). Columbus, OH: ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career and Vocational Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 402 475)

Johnston, J., Young, S., & Petty, L. (1999). *An impact study of TV411.* Ann Arbor, MI: Unviersity of Michigan, Institute for Social Research, Teaching, Learning and Technology Program.

Lave, J. & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning and identity.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Deborah D'Amico, PhD., and Maura Donnelly, Research Associates, Adult Literacy Media Alliance, 96 Morton Street (7th Floor), New York, NY 10014

Acknowledgments: The work on which this paper is based was supported by the Ford Foundation, with additional funding from the Lila-Wallace Reader's Digest Fund; the South Carolina Department of Education, Office of Community Education; North Carolina Community College System; and the Institute for Career Development, a Joint Program of the United Steelworkers of America and Participating Steel Companies.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

DEFINING THE "NONTRADITIONAL" COLLEGE STUDENT THROUGH CLUSTER ANALYSIS

Alicia C. Dowd
Tarek Coury

ABSTRACT

Through cluster analysis of nationally representative survey data from beginning postsecondary students, six categories of college students are identified. The first two clusters are characterized by the inclusion of 18-year-old full-time students from high socioeconomic backgrounds who are enrolled in four-year institutions. The second two clusters include young adults with middle socioeconomic status. These two clusters are distinguished from each other by the primary enrollment of the first group in four-year institutions and the enrollment of the second group in two-year institutions. Those attending four-year institutions remain financially dependent on their parents and enroll in academic programs. Those attending two-year institutions are much more likely to be working, financially independent, and enrolled in vocational programs. The final two clusters include students with low socioeconomic status. The first of these two groups includes students who are older and married, and who often also have children. The second group is made up of single parents. The use of the clusters as independent variables in a regression analysis is found to have predictive power equivalent to the use of the component variables.

INTRODUCTION

Kasworm (1993) and Kasworm, Sandmann, and Sissel (in press) have observed that the use of the term "nontraditional" student is an elitist practice. The use of the "nontraditional" label, they have argued, treats adult learners as "nonnormative" and negates a long history of the increasing inclusion of women, people of color, and working class students in higher education. These authors call for the development of a fuller understanding of who adult learners are and the ways in which colleges and universities treat this increasingly large proportion of the college student population. Similarly, Baker and Velez (1996) observe that in order to promote access to and opportunity in postsecondary education in the United States, our society needs a better understanding of the characteristics of an increasingly heterogeneous student body.

In this study, we contribute to the re-conceptualization of subcategories of college students in order to move beyond the use of the terms "traditional" and "nontraditional." The effort is motivated by the belief that the use of descriptive terms that recognize a fuller range of student backgrounds, experiences, and needs is necessary to develop inclusive policies and programs. We use cluster analysis to identify groups of students in a nationally representative database of beginning first-time college students in the United States. We also investigate the value of using the clusters as variables in a logistic regression model predicting the one-year persistence and academic attainment of college students. We compare the use of the clusters versus use of the component variables defining the clusters in explaining the variation in student persistence and attainment. As Kasworm (1993, 1990) has noted, a wide range of variables has been used to define "nontraditional" students in previous research. These variables sometimes reflect researcher assumptions about adult learners rather than capture characteristics relevant to the academic experience. In this study, we select variables based on a theoretical perspective and then explore the data for appropriate categorizations of students.

DATA AND METHODS

The data analyzed are the result of two surveys conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES). These are the National Postsecondary Student Aid Study (NPSAS), conducted 1989-1990, and the Beginning Postsecondary Students, Second Follow-up (BPS), conducted in 1994 as a longitudinal component of the NPSAS 90 survey. The BPS includes only first-time college students and is a subset of the larger NPSAS sample, which is representative of all college students. These data were chosen for this analysis in order to be able to observe the persistence and attainment of students over the five-year period of the survey. We plan to supplement this study in the future by analyzing more-recent longitudinal BPS data as well as the most recent sample of the more-representative NPSAS survey. The NPSAS and BPS data are appropriate for this type of analysis because they include extensive information about student finances and college enrollment. The primary limitation of these data is the absence of information about students' achievement and course taking in high school. We generate subcategories of college students using cluster analysis, a statistical technique useful for identifying groupings of cases within a sample based on the value of specific variables chosen for the analysis.

Building on Tinto's socio-psychological model of student persistence, Bean and Metzner (1985) developed a model of nontraditional undergraduate student attrition that gives particular attention to the influence of external (non-collegiate) environmental variables on student persistence. The environmental variables, which include hours working, financial aid, and family responsibilities, were considered by them to have a greater influence on the academic success of adult learners than of young adults who have progressed directly from high school to college. They call for additional research on the persistence of nontraditional students that is theoretically driven and that takes account of students' external environments (p. 528). Building on the work of Bean and Metzner, this study uses human capital theory to conceptualize the importance of environmental variables and to guide the research design.

According to human capital theory, students will invest in their education up to the point at which they maximize the monetary and psychic returns to their investments. They are constrained in making these investments by time, income, and ability. Opportunity costs associated with time away from employment or family also must be accounted for as indirect costs of obtaining an education (Becker, 1993). The variables initially included in the analysis represent finances (socioeconomic status, financial dependence or independence, income, financial responsibility for others, present net worth); influences on available time (employment, parenthood, single parenthood, marriage); and academic ability or social capital (grade point average, institutional type, remedial coursework, academic or vocational study, father's education, mother's education). Three demographic variables (age, gender, and race) were also initially included.

Cluster analysis can create groupings of cases even when strong associations do not actually exist among the variables defining the clusters. Therefore, the correlations among the variables that had been chosen for the cluster analysis based on theoretical considerations were first tested using principal components analysis. This step generated six principal components and revealed that a high proportion of the variance of each variable included in the analysis was explained by common factors. The lowest extraction value was .340. This step confirmed that it was appropriate to use the chosen variables in a cluster analysis. However, grade point average and present net worth were omitted from subsequent cluster analyses due to missing data. The two demographic variables with low variation, gender and race, were also omitted from subsequent analyses because these variables represented basically fixed categories themselves and did not add to the development of subcategories of college students.

We used k-means cluster analysis to group the cases in the data, where k represents the number of clusters chosen for the analysis. The variables, which were measured on different scales, were first standardized to a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1. The computer program then assigns each case to one of the k clusters, which in this analysis was set at six, because an earlier test of seven clusters created one cluster with a very small number of cases. Cases are assigned to a cluster based on a comparison of the values of the variables for that case and the mean value of those variables in each cluster. The means of each cluster are recalculated as new cases are added. K-means cluster analysis maximizes the squared Euclidean distance between the cluster centers and minimizes the distances within clusters (SPSS, 1999, Chapter 15).

Once the six clusters were created, we tested the null hypothesis that the cluster group means were not different through discriminant analysis. The resulting F statistic, which is a ratio of variability between groups to variability within groups (SPSS, 1999, p. 252), showed that the difference between the group means was statistically significant. By using the discriminant function, we also generated the unstandardized mean value and standard deviation for variables of interest for each cluster group. When the values from the discriminant function are used to reclassify the cases, 93.9% of the original grouped cases are correctly classified. This indicates that the values provide accurate representations of the clusters.

We also included the clusters as independent variables in logistic regression analyses predicting within-year persistence and academic attainment. Attainment had a minimal definition of the completion of any degree or certificate within the five-year period of the study. (The full regression models and results are not reported here, but are available from the authors.)

RESULTS

Six groups of college students were created by the cluster analysis. Table 1 (below) presents the mean value and standard deviation of the initial variables of interest for the six clusters. These values, which were generated through the discriminant analysis, provide information to characterize the differences between the clusters. The first cluster includes students who have typically been considered traditional students. They are enrolled in academic programs at four-year institutions, are not married, and do not have children. Their parents have attained upper- or middle-class socioeconomic status (SES) and are college-educated. Ninety-three percent of cluster 1 students are financially dependent on their parents. Cluster 2 is a small subset of cluster 1, but with a very high average SES (96th percentile). Cluster 2 shows a lower proportion of students as dependent. However, only a small proportion of these high SES students are employed, which suggests that they still receive financial support from their parents. In the logistic regression model predicting attainment over the five-year period, membership in cluster 2 increased the probability of attainment by 27% relative to the omitted group in cluster 1.

Students in clusters 3 and 4 have a mid-level SES. Their parents have, on average, completed high school or trade school. In both groups, the students are not married and do not have children. The two groups differ based on whether the student is employed and self-supporting or financially dependent on her or his parents. In this respect, cluster 3 students are more like students in clusters 1 and 2. While 29% of these students attend community colleges, almost all of the students in this group are enrolled in academic programs and consider themselves students rather than employees. Ninety-four percent are dependent on their parents. Their counterparts in cluster 4 are much less often dependent on their parents (37%) and much more often consider themselves to be primarily employees rather than students (53%). Eighty-eight percent are enrolled in community colleges. There is more age variation in cluster 4, where the average age is twenty years. Therefore, it is likely that some of these students had stopped out of formal education for a few years. In the logistic regression model of one-year persistence, students in cluster 3 are predicted to be 13% less likely to persist than students in cluster 1, which was the omitted group. The size of the differences between the predicted probabilities of persistence was not substantively different for the other groups.

Clusters 5 and 6 have students with low SES. Cluster 5 includes financially independent married students, who are generally older than those in the other clusters. The majority of students in this group also have children. Their parents have the lowest average educational level of any of the groups. Cluster 6 is distinguished by the fact that all of its members described themselves as single parents. It is not a subset of cluster 5, however, as the educational background of these students' parents is more similar to that of students in clusters 3 and 4. The majority of students in cluster 6 are white, but a proportion much larger than that found in the other clusters is black (20%). The majority of students in clusters 5 and 6 attend community colleges, but roughly 30% of each group is enrolled in four-year institutions. In the logistic regression model predicting attainment, the single parents in cluster 6 were predicted to be 9% more likely to complete some type of degree or certificate. However, this may reflect enrollment in certificate programs.

Table 1 Mean Values of College Student Clusters for Selected Variables

	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3
	N=1432 Weighted N=406,579	N=36 Weighted N=7427	N=1302 Weighted N=432,048
	High SES	High SES	Middle SES, 4-year institutions
Dependent (0=no, 1=yes)	.9250 (.2634)	.6362 (.4811)	.9385 (.2402)
Age (Years)	18.21 (.8363)	18.25 (.5411)	18.27 (.8832)
Socioeconomic status (percentile)	85.44 (10.88)	96.00 (.0000)	66.25 (18.65)
Income (dollars)	59964 (31806)	348343 (149520)	34434 (19547)
Father's education (1-7)*	6.075 (1.093)	5.954 (1.708)	2.638 (1.451)
Mother's education (1-7)*	5.140 (1.616)	5.023 (1.981)	2.539 (1.288)
Employed (0=no, 1=yes)	.1984 (.3988)	.1347 (.3414)	.1195 (.3243)
Children (count)	0.00 .0000	0.00 .0000	.0042 .0647
Single parent (0=no, 1=yes)	0.00 .0000	0.00 .0000	0.00 .0000
Married (0=no, 1=yes)	.0029 .0054	0.00 .0000	.0160 .1254
Gender (0=male, 1=female)	.4914 .4999	.4236 .4942	.5110 .4999
Responsible for others (count, 0-6)	.1414 .4529	.0915 .3628	.3027 .6743
Institution (0=other, 1=2-year)	.1982 (.3986)	.2151 (.4109)	.2942 (.4557)
Remedial courses (count, 0-4)	.1877 (.6077)	.0484 (.3074)	.2076 (.5739)
Academic program (0=no, 1=yes)	.9873 (.1120)	1.000 (.0000)	.9732 (.1615)
Grade point average (4.0=A)	2.591 .9023	2.309 .8467	2.504 .8995
White (percent)	.9096 (.2868)	.9493 (.2195)	.8858 (.3181)
Black (percent)	.0465 (.2105)	0.00 .0000	.0595 (.2365)
Asian (percent)	.0394 (.1945)	.0507 (.2195)	.0396 (.1951)

Table 1 (continued) Mean Values of College Student Clusters for Selected Variables

	Cluster 4	Cluster 5	Cluster 6
	N=331 Weighted N=253,694	N=151 Weighted N=86,574	N=100 Weighted N=42,991
	Middle SES, 2-year institutions	Low SES, Married	Low SES, Single Parents
Dependent (0=no, 1=yes)	.3733 (.4837)	.0205 (.1417)	.1788 (.3832)
Age (Years)	20.05 (3.713)	30.67 (7.075)	25.44 (7.894)
Socioeconomic status (percentile)	58.63 (23.12)	40.60 (19.42)	34.69 (22.58)
Income (dollars)	28102 (18829)	25554 (15718)	8064 (7615)
Father's education (1-7)*	2.945 (1.790)	2.066 (1.440)	2.657 (1.848)
Mother's education (1-7)*	2.560 (1.515)	1.925 (1.234)	2.547 (1.480)
Employed (0=no, 1=yes)	.5272 (.4993)	.4697 (.4991)	.3995 (.4898)
Children (count)	.0002 (.0471)	1.662 (1.052)	1.371 (.9324)
Single parent (0=no, 1=yes)	0.00 (.0000)	0.00 (.0000)	1.00 (.0000)
Married (0=no, 1=yes)	.0282 (.1657)	.9976 (.0945)	.1902 (.5867)
Gender (0=male, 1=female)	.4727 (.4993)	.6756 (.4682)	.8632 (.3437)
Responsible for others (count, 0-6)	.4182 (.7262)	2.340 (1.485)	1.738 (1.388)
Institution (0=other, 1=2-year)	.8803 (.3247)	.7374 (.4401)	.7072 (.4551)
Remedial courses (count, 0-4)	.4662 (.9806)	.2843 (.6772)	.2104 (.7458)
Academic program (0=no, 1=yes)	.5101 (.4999)	.4744 (.4993)	.5587 (.4966)
Grade point average (4.0=A)	2.381 1.109	3.194 .9472	2.562 1.091
White (percent)	.8687 (.3378)	.8846 (.3195)	.7531 (.4312)
Black (percent)	.0678 (.2513)	.0777 (.2677)	.2063 (.4046)
Asian (percent)	.0383 (.1919)	.0357 (.1855)	.0107 (.1031)

Standard deviations in parentheses. * 1=some high school, 2=high school degree, 3=trade school, 4=<two-year degree, 5=two-year degree, 6=bachelor's degree, 7=post-baccalaureate degree

The use of the clusters rather than the component variables of the clusters in the logistic regression analyses resulted in models that explained equivalent variation in the predicted outcomes. The pseudo R^2 for the within-year persistence model is .0949 using the clusters and

.1003 using the full range of variables. The respective pseudo R^2 values for the attainment model are .1750 and .2115.

CONCLUSION

The first three clusters described above may be considered to include traditional students and the second three clusters to include nontraditional students. To move beyond the use of these terms, which suggest that adult learners are outside the norm, we can term young adults who are financially dependent on their parents and who proceed to college from high school in their late teens "continuing dependent students." Students who are older, working, and have financial responsibility for their own families might best be described as "returning adult students." These terms may meet the need for ready categorization that is necessary for practical reasons in many circumstances and has fostered the continued use of the traditional/nontraditional terminology. These new terms are not wholly satisfactory, however. The categorization of young adults as "dependent" is not particularly accurate in contrast to the older students who have an array of financial and family responsibilities. The older returning students are less financially "independent" than responsible for a range of commitments to others, and the young adults are less "dependent" than free to pursue their studies without responsibility for others.

Therefore, the main contribution of this aspect of the study is the demonstration of the use of exploratory data analysis (in this case cluster analysis) to develop categories that are indicated by the data, rather than by researcher assumptions and beliefs about different types of students. The clusters generated by this analysis have the advantage of defining student categories by the values of each case on a relatively large number of variables. The categories allow for a more complex representation of student characteristics than that provided by the use of individual variables. The categories are then available for the analysis of issues of policy and practice (as demonstrated in this case with regard to student persistence and attainment).

REFERENCES

Baker, T. L., & Velez, W. (1996). Access to and opportunity in post-secondary education in the United States: A review. *Sociology of Education, SI*, 82-101.

Bean, J. P., & Metzner, B. S. (1985). A conceptual model of nontraditional undergraduate student attrition. *Review of Educational Research, 55*(4), 485-540.

Becker, G. S. (1993). *Human capital* (3rd ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Kasworm, C. (1993). An alternative perspective on empowerment of adult undergraduates. *Contemporary Education, 64*(3), 162-165.

Kasworm, C. (1990). Adult undergraduates in higher education: A review of past research perspectives. *Review of Educational Research, 60*(3), 345-372.

Kasworm, C., Sandmann, L., & Sissel, P.A. (in press). Adult learners in higher education. In A. Wilson & E. Hayes (Eds), *Handbook of adult and continuing education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

SPSS Base 9.0 applications guide. (1999). Chicago: SPSS, Inc.

Alicia C. Dowd, Ph.D., Senior Lecturer, 415 Kennedy Hall, Department of Education, Cornell University, Ithaca NY 14853

Tarek Coury, Ph.D. Candidate, Department of Economics, Cornell University.

This research is supported by a grant from the Association for Institutional Research and the National Center for Education Statistics.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

INTRODUCING THE MENTOR ROLE IN ONLINE DISTANCE LEARNING: A CASE STUDY OF IMPLEMENTATION AT FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY

Sue Easton

ABSTRACT

Florida State University is currently implementing a new instructional delivery model for online distance learning. This unique model introduces the role of the mentor who acts as the primary interface for the students providing facilitation and coaching. Working with the lead faculty, the mentor is supported by an infrastructure that includes a variety of positions such as the mentor coordinator, the author of this paper. From this perspective, critical issues and key insights are offered to others interested in pursuing a similar approach to supported distance learning.

INTRODUCTION

Within the field of online distance education, several issues are converging that require effective models for instructional delivery: advances in Internet technology, rapidly growing enrollment needs, and continued cost containment. In response, Florida State University (FSU) has launched an online distance learning initiative that merges Internet technology with the delivery of distance education and introduces the role of the "mentor" into the instructional delivery system.

Five years ago, FSU visited the British Open University and observed the successful implementation of their instructional system which included a regionally-based "tutor" to support student learning. Based on the tutor model FSU's approach incorporates the mentor as the primary interface for the student acting as a facilitator and learning coach. These mentors are geographically dispersed throughout Florida, and are located in areas that allow close proximity to their students. Communication occurs through various channels, including the Internet, telephone, and in some cases face-to-face meetings. Students also join a learning community, connecting online with their mentors and fellow students through email and group threaded discussions.

The mentor position was implemented as part of the 2 + 2 Distance Learning Initiative (2 + 2 DLI). Through this initiative, FSU provides selected Bachelor's degree programs via Internet-supported distance learning. This 2 + 2 DLI program is designed for students who hold an Associate of Arts degree, and wish to earn a Bachelor's degree without the need to attend classes on campus. Graduates of FSU degree programs delivered via distance learning earn the same course credits and degrees as those students who complete equivalent courses and programs on campus. Currently, programs leading to Bachelor's degrees are available from the Department of Computer Science and from the School of Information Studies, with additional programs under development for the next year. The courses are delivered in a format especially designed for part-time students and flexible study using a variety of materials in an asynchronous format.

INFRASTRUCTURE TO SUPPORT DISTANCE LEARNING AT FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY

The infrastructure of the 2 + 2 DLI includes a variety of positions (see Figure 1) each designed to ensure that the program is student-centered. The Office of Distributed and Distance Learning (ODDL) was established in July 1999 and reports to the Associate Vice President for Program Development and Faculty Support. The purpose of this organization is to coordinate services and

---

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

resources to the university's faculty for innovation in teaching and learning. One of the major functions of this department is online student support extending from the initial application process all the way through graduation (FSU, 2 + 2 Distance Learning Initiative, 1999).

The mentor role was created to help students 1) clarify course content, 2) establish a learning community, and 3) access resources to find solutions to administrative and logistical problems

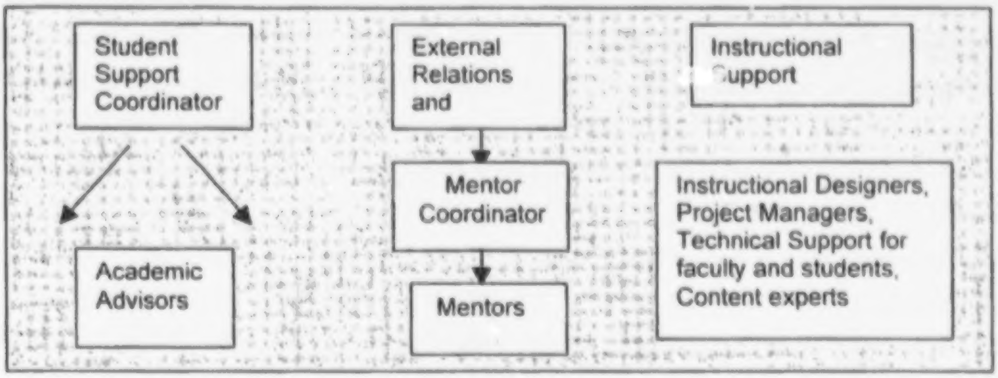

Student Support Coordinator
External Relations and
Instructional Support
Mentor Coordinator
Instructional Designers, Project Managers, Technical Support for faculty and students, Content experts
Academic Advisors
Mentors

Figure 1. Infrastructure of Office of Distributed and Distance Learning

(FSU, 1999). The mentor helps students progress through the course and connects them with the appropriate resources for answers on university policies and administrative matters. As a learning coach for the students, the mentor grades assignments and provides constructive feedback and strives to be an ongoing presence by communicating regularly with his or her students. A mentor can be anyone who is acceptable to the lead faculty and who has completed the certification training process. The first cohort of 27 mentors consisted of highly qualified individuals, most of whom held Master's degrees in a related field and some even had doctorates. For the first semester, twelve mentors were activated based on the student enrollment.

In addition to the mentor, students also receive critical support from the Student Support Coordinator and her team. She coordinates the processes for online student orientation, and registration requirements and supervises the academic advisors. The academic advisors for the students are assigned to the department or school for guidance on academic requirements and progress. Students are likely to ask the advisors about course equivalency substitutions, course prerequisites, graduation checks, and other procedural matters. The academic advisors also help to coordinate course withdrawal requests and grade appeals in compliance with FSU policy.

The instructional systems support functions represent various components of a systems approach for materials-based distributed education. The key elements of this team are:

- Content experts–1-3 faculty members from the department offering the course
- Technical experts–Web programmers (html, CGI, java) digital art and design; digital video/audio; writers, editors
- Educational experts–Professional instructional designers
- Project managers–Organizing and managing the entire effort
- Student Support–Technical support, External partnerships with community colleges (FSU, Office of Distributed and Distance Learning, 1999).

Another important component of the infrastructure includes the mentor coordinator. This position reports to the Coordinator of External Relations and Development who establishes and maintains partnerships with the community colleges that provide library resources and proctoring facilities for exams. The role of mentor coordinator has four distinct components and each is crucial to the success of the mentor. The mentor coordinator is responsible for:

1. Recruiting mentors, maintaining an accurate database of interested candidates, and coordinating the hiring process.
2. Coordinating the training and development of mentors. This occurs in several formats such as face-to-face, online, printed materials and references, and via a Mentor Resources Web site. The training responsibility includes developing a framework for Mentor Certification based on lessons learned during the first year of data collection and analysis.
3. Ongoing monitoring and feedback to the mentors and lead faculty throughout the semester. The mentor coordinator establishes a communication plan and schedule for formal contacts, and also interacts to manage emergent issues and concerns. The mentor coordinator must develop strategies for supporting communication among mentors by being alert to concerns, successes, challenges, and solutions.
4. Developing and maintaining engagement is the crucial task and role of the mentor in distance learning support and it is similarly crucial in the role of the Mentor Coordinator. The fourth responsibility is to model this engagement.

Of particular interest is the relationship between the role of the mentors and the faculty members, which requires careful coordination to ensure cohesion for the students. The role of mentor coordinator is designed to pay attention to this process and to offer support and interventions when necessary.

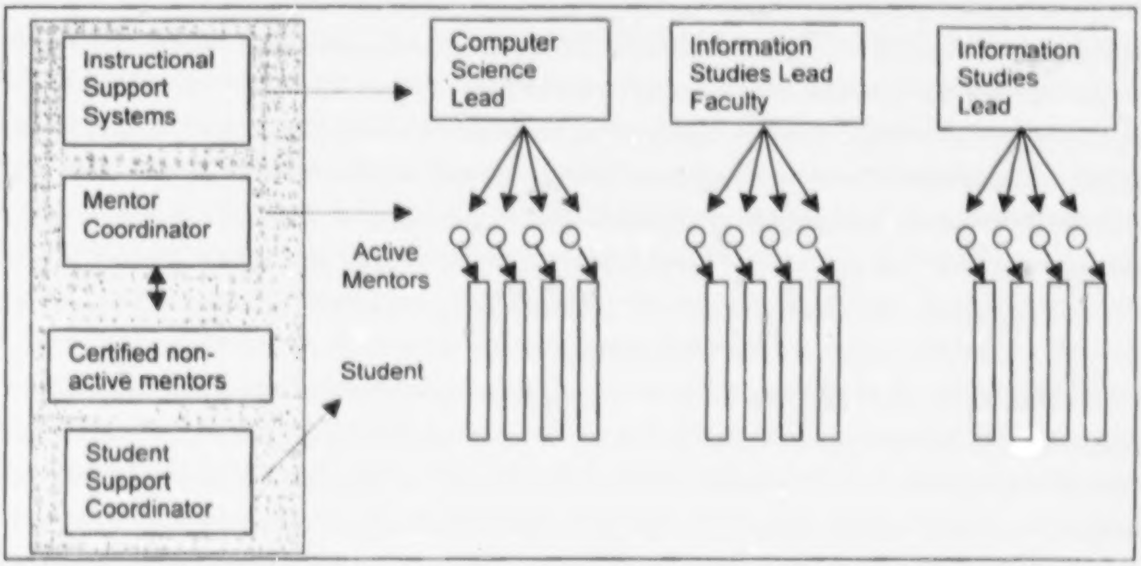

Instructional Support Systems
Mentor Coordinator
Certified non-active mentors
Student Support Coordinator
Computer Science Lead
Information Studies Lead Faculty
Information Studies Lead
Active Mentors
Student

Figure 2. Support During Course Delivery

Although the student typically works through the mentor as the first point of contact, the lead faculty is also available to offer additional clarification of the course content and assignments to the mentors or students. He or she worked with the instructional design team as a content expert in the development of the course materials and can answer any content-specific questions. The lead faculty also makes the final decisions for selection of the mentors to work with the course on a per semester basis, and has the ultimate responsibility and authority for the success of the course. Once a course is completed, the mentor returns to a pool of certified mentors to be considered for the next semester's courses. In this way, both the mentor and faculty member can make decisions based on experience, interest, and qualifications

WHAT HAVE WE LEARNED DURING THE FIRST SEMESTER?

This researcher has incorporated various qualitative methods for data collection and at this time, the focus group interviews have provided the greatest insight. Three focus group meetings were held with mentors during the 10th week of the first semester. The meetings were designed to meet several purposes, including increased communication between mentors, collection of data for the program, and sharing of new information with mentors. The structure of the meetings was based on various theoretical frameworks and centered on the phenomenological approach to in-depth interviewing from Schultz (1967). Although the meetings were informal in tone, they were designed to help participants tell their stories by selecting details of their experiences and providing reflection. The goal was to better understand the experience of being a mentor by understanding their actions and comments; therefore the questions were designed to elicit concrete examples to support expressed feelings and thoughts.

The purpose of the focus groups was to understand what meaning the mentors make of their experiences and their subjective understanding, and interviewing was the best approach for this purpose (Schultz, 1967; Seidman, 1998). As Vygotsky (1987) states, the very process of putting experiences into language is a meaning-making process. The adequacy of a research method depends on the purpose of the research and the relevance of the questions being asked (Locke, 1989). Therefore the questions were developed with additional input from the lead faculty and the 2 + 2 Implementation Team members. The author, as mentor coordinator, facilitated the meetings and wrote the interpretations with the additional validation by member checks from mentors who were involved. The following section presents some of the questions and the interpretations.

QUESTION 1: WHAT WERE YOUR EXPECTATIONS BEFORE THE JOB BEGAN?

Interpretation of Responses: Most mentors had a sense of what the job would be like, except that there was discrepancy on issues regarding number of students/mentor and the amount of work they would be doing. To many, the job seemed more like being an instructor rather than a facilitator. As one mentor put it, "I do my teaching by the feedback I provide on their papers". In many cases, those involved in early design discussions remembered tentative decisions that were later changed resulting in some confusion about expectations. It is noted that keeping everyone current with changes in the implementation is a complex requirement – not only are decisions being made continuously, but key stakeholders and personnel have changed making updates difficult.

QUESTION 2: WHAT ARE SOME OF YOUR CURRENT EXPERIENCES?

Interpretation of Responses: Experiences range over a wide continuum. In general most mentors enjoy the position and are finding that their needs are being met for professional development. These comments are very individual, and represent variations in personal style and attitudes and may be useful in highlighting responses in other sections.

QUESTION 3: HOW DOES THE TERM "MENTOR" RELATE TO YOUR CURRENT EXPERIENCE?

Interpretation of Responses: There was a lot of energy around this discussion, and therefore it seems to be important for further discussion. The newness of the term may contribute to the problem, yet even the term "teaching assistant" means many different things throughout each college. Some mentors believed that the title impacts how students treat them, yet others disagreed with this point. Most felt that the term did not accurately reflect the work that they are doing with the student.

QUESTION 4: WHAT IS COMMUNICATION LIKE FOR YOU WITH THE LEAD FACULTY?

Interpretation of Responses: The comments are varied and reflect the differences in the communication styles of both the lead faculty and the mentor. In most cases, increased communication seems to increase confidence and satisfaction on the part of the mentor. In the earlier stages of the course, increased feedback on performance in grading papers and handling comments would help most mentors by validating or correcting performance.

QUESTION 5: HOW MANY STUDENTS DO YOU HAVE, AND HOW MANY HOURS DO YOU SPEND MENTORING EACH WEEK?

Interpretation of responses: The great variation in responses appears to be due to several factors: familiarity with content, relationship to lead faculty, personal styles and attitudes, access to information and use of existing resources. These variations are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Number of Students and Number of Hours Mentoring

Mentors	Number of students	Number of hours/week spent mentoring
1	14	12
2	12	11-12
3	11	10
4	14	10
5	10	7-8
6	15	20
7	16	14-16
8	14	10-12
9	13	8-10
10	17	20
11	29	5-8
12	22	10-15

LESSONS LEARNED

The primary themes that emerged in these interviews can be summarized into four areas:

1. Complexity of communication–The complexity of communication in a virtual environment suggests that there are two important factors that play into the level of frustration experienced by the mentor: physical distance and psychological distance. Those mentors who are on campus and have an informal process for communicating with the lead faculty or program staff had less frustration with information and start up issues. Additionally, those mentors who frequently participated in the Mentor Resources Web site were also less likely to perceive a lack of adequate information.
2. Ambiguity in the definition of the role of the mentor--This was reflected in the general comments suggesting that the name should be changed to reflect a title such as "assistant instructor" Comments included a concern for student respect, and a sense that the work being done by the mentor is more like an instructor than originally anticipated. The comments made regarding the term "mentor" have been recorded in this report and although it was not planned as a question for discussion, it appeared to be a significant issue to the mentors at each meeting
3. Scope and data related to the work itself--The reported scope of the work was a reflection of the time required to grade papers, contact students who do not respond, and read course materials. Currently the range for mentors/student is from 1:10 to 1:29 students each. Mentors report range of time spent spanning from 5 to 20 hours per week. Most agree that 15 students each seems to be an appropriate student load, and that mentors spend approximately 50 minutes per student per week. Number of hours

worked, number of students, content and process issues, expectations and current experiences

4. Administrative support issues--These comments reflected the mentors' need for earlier access to information. This would include prioritizing communication that is most essential, and the importance of more "hands-on" and content-specific training in the future.

In summary, most mentors want to continue this position into the next semester and seem to perceive a mutually beneficial relationship with FSU. They feel that the value of the experience in terms of professional development, learning, and salary are balanced by the cost of personal time, effort and frustration. The experiences cover a wide continuum and the responses are varied across mentors, lead faculty, courses and geography. At this time, the most critical issue is the arena of organizational communication that is made more complex by the virtual environment. More data is needed to continue exploring these themes and to look for areas that need to be improved.

REFERENCES

Eisner, E. (1998). *The enlightened eye: Qualitative inquiry and the enhancement of educational practice*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Florida State University. (1999). *Florida State University Mentor Handbook*. Tallahassee, FL: Author.

Florida State University, 2 + 2 Distance Learning Initiative. (1999). *Internet-supported distance learning: Frequently asked questions*. Retrieved September 1, 1999, from the World Wide Web: http://connected2.fsu.edu/2+2/mentor/2+2-PM1.html

Florida State University, Office of Distributed and Distance Learning. (1999). *Our team approach*. Retrieved September 1, 1999, from the World Wide Web: http://www.fsu.edu/~distance/team.html

Locke, L. (1989). Qualitative research as a form of scientific inquiry in sport and physical education. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, 60*(1), 1-20.

Schultz, A. (1967). *The phenomenology of the social world* (G. Walsh & F. Lenhert, Trans.). Chicago: Northwestern University Press.

Schuman, D. (1982). *Policy analysis, education, and everyday life*. Lexington, MA: Heath.

Seidman, I. (1985). *In the words of the faculty: Perspectives on improving teaching and educational quality in community colleges*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Seidman, I. (1998). *Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Vygotsky, L. (1987). *Thought and language* (A. Kozulin, Ed.). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Sue Easton, Mentor Coordinator, 2254 Nannas Loop, Tallahassee, FL 32303
seaston@oddl.fsu.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES AND ADULT LEARNING:
A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Trenton R. Ferro

ABSTRACT

Many writers and researchers have explored the theory of multiple intelligences (MI) from the perspective of K-12 education. Since the theory appears to hold considerable promise, this investigation was undertaken to determine the extent to which MI theory has been applied to the field of adult education. Little actual research was found. Therefore, adult educators are encouraged to explore how MI theory might provide 1) insight into a better understanding of the nature and needs of our adult students and 2) valuable suggestions for helping them in their learning. In either case, a sizeable research agenda can be developed.

INTRODUCTION

Howard Gardner (1983, 1991, 1993) and others (e.g., Armstrong, 1993, 1994; Campbell, 1994; Campbell, Campbell, & Dickinson, 1993; Gardner & Hatch, 1990; Lazear, 1991a, 1991b, 1993, 1994; Teele, 1991; Thornburg, 1989), through their research and writings on the topic of multiple intelligences (MI), have made considerable contribution to the literature on cognitive development and learning. However, most of the research and writing, and the practical applications of the findings, have been devoted to K-12 education.

This exploration investigates research into the application of MI theory to adults as learners and to adult education programs and activities. Accepting this premise that adults, as well as children, possess multiple intelligences can help those of us working with adults on several fronts: 1) We can gain greater insight into why many adults now in ABE, GED, and literacy programs were unsuccessful in their earlier educational experiences. 2) We can gain new insights to help these same adults become successful learners. 3) We can understand better how to improve programming and delivery in any venue so that the learning experience for adults can be enhanced and their enjoyment in learning increased.

This investigation has followed the normal procedures used in conducting literature reviews. Several databases, including ERIC, PsychLit, and Dissertations Abstracts, have been queried using such sets of descriptors as "'Multiple Intelligences' and 'Adult*'" and "'Intelligence' and 'Adult*.'" The articles, chapters, books, and other documents thus identified have been organized according to the research approach involved: analytical research, action research, research studies incorporating MI into their theoretical bases, and prescriptive writing.

FINDINGS

ANALYTICAL RESEARCH

Although MI has received considerable attention and widespread endorsement, its application has been limited by the lack of a practical, reliable, and valid method of assessment. Shearer and Jones (1994) have provided such an instrument, the *Hillside Assessment of Perceived Intelligences* (HAPI), which is comprised of 106 items: 58 items inquire about the level of skill in a particular domain, 37 are concerned with the frequency of participation in activities associated with each construct, and 11 ask about interest levels. In the fourth phase of the research and development of the HAPI, two approaches were used: a) correlations with concurrently administered tests and b) comparison of contrasted groups. A sample of 383 participants was recruited to assess the reliability and validity of the HAPI: 338 undergraduate and graduate students and 45 individuals who were enrolled in adult education courses, clinical patients, or volunteers solicited form the local community. This investigation into the concurrent validity of the HAPI with other instruments found the patterns of correlation coefficients to be generally supportive of the HAPI scales. However, an examination of the construct validity of the scales using contrasted groups produced mixed results.

Shearer (1997) has also tested a similar instrument, the *Multiple Intelligences Developmental Assessment Scales* (MIDAS), which also includes the naturalist intelligence. His 1997 report describes a number of investigations designed to test the validity and reliability of the MIDAS and a study in which 98 students participating in two sections of the career exploration class at a large, Midwestern, state university used the MIDAS as part of the course. According to Shearer,

> The MIDAS has been found to posses adequate reliability and validity as a self-report measure of a person's multiple intelligences disposition. College students report that they find the Career Exploration class beneficial for clarifying career goals and selecting an academic major. They also report that the MIDAS Profile Report provides them with new information that is useful for increasing self awareness especially regarding skills and abilities. Consequently, students are better able to make educational choices and career plans with enhanced self awareness. (p. 14)

ACTION RESEARCH

The application of MI to adult learners has been investigated through several action research projects. Several were carried out as part of the Adult Multiple Intelligences (AMI) Project sponsored by the National Center for the Study of Adult Learning and Literacy. For example, Jean (1999) used an MI-informed approach to set up lessons with choices based on Gardner's theory. She found that learners in her GED classroom did choose activities that matched their strongest intelligences. Furthermore, students with learning disorders and attention deficit disorders appeared to be more involved in learning. Similarly, Quiñones and Cornwell (1999) found that MI approaches helped overcome resistance to learning in GED classrooms.

Summarizing the experience of ten teachers involved in the AMI project, Kallenbach (1999) found six themes emerging: a) "Using an MI framework leads teachers to offer a greater variety of learning activities" (p. 16). b) "Observing students' learning preferences generates valuable information about students' strengths that can inform the development of future lessons" (p. 17). c) "Teachers often begin applying MI by having students assess their own intelligences, but a range of factors affects whether students find the assessment useful or meaningful" (p. 18). d) "Students' regular reflection on their learning shifted and broadened their paradigms of effective and acceptable teaching and learning practices" (p. 18). e) "Teachers perceive a shift in the balance of power in the classroom when they offer students intelligences-informed choices in how they learn and express their understanding" (p. 19). f) "MI-informed education encourages teachers to learn more about their students, [sic] and may cause them to increase their expectations of students" (p. 19).

Among another set of action research projects, conducted by the Boston Inquiry Collaborative on Learning Disabilities and Lack of Progress (Merson, 1995), two were devoted to the application of MI. Hogan (1995) and her colleague used a twofold approach in her Office Systems Training Program at the Asian American Civic Association in Boston, where most of her students came originally from China and Vietnam. One part involved the administration of a checklist adapted from Armstrong (1993); the second was the development of a cluster of activities focused on each of the seven intelligences (Gardner has since added an eighth). Although she will need to revise her approach to the administration of the checklist with future groups, Hogan (1995) concludes:

> I believe I've made a good start in using this approach. More needs to be done. My initial presentation to the students will be revised. I'll include more hands-on activities. However, I think my students have a better understanding of themselves now as a result of this. And I feel

> confident, as I improve this approach, that any LD students in my class will definitely find learning English easier. (p. 21)

Streck (1995), who works with ABE and GED students in a shelter for homeless women, asked the question: "What will my student and I discover if we look in her autobiography for evidence of the causes of a failure to learn, and how can I use the theory of multiple intelligences to make this process of uncovering a positive one?" (p. 52). She interviewed two of her students to develop an educational biography. Then, on the basis of clues revealed in each biography, she developed learning strategies that related to the MI strengths revealed in the interviews. Although recognizing the need for further research, her initial experience was sufficiently favorable to encourage her to use this approach with modifications.

Although not based on an action research project, Christison's (1996) own experience lays the foundation for her approach to using MI with ESL/EFL students. Similar to the approach described and used by Hogan (1995), Christison (1996) begins with an MI inventory that she and her students have developed collaboratively and then draws from a pool of activities she has developed. She also describes the four stages involved in planning lessons that teach with multiple intelligences, a developmental sequence she has adapted from Lazear (1991b).

In a similar fashion, Donovan and Iovino (1994) share their experience using portfolios in undergraduate teacher education at Molloy College. The use of multiple intelligences portfolios is supported by Gardner's Project Zero Classroom and by the Arts Propel curriculum and assessment project at Harvard University. The authors' experience is supported further by a review of the literature on the application of MI and on the use of portfolios.

STUDIES INCORPORATING MI THEORY

Some studies, while not investigating MI theory directly, have incorporated MI into their theoretical base. Leach's (1991) ethnographic study of six Accelerated Learning Language Teachers of Suggestopedia (ALTOS) at a selected Language and Cultural Center found that these ALTOS do as the literature says they do: By utilizing methods that are brain-compatible vs. brain antagonistic, learning can be accelerated. The theoretical rationale for the study was based upon the work of Lozanov, creator of Suggestopedia; Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences; and Krashen's Second Language Acquisition Theory.

Coil (1998) developed class activities and assignments that integrated MI theory with computer-assisted learning (CAL) materials in a formal education setting for adult learners at a community college. Participating students expressed positive sentiments about the use of computer tutorials and hypermedia instructional materials and the variety of activities emerging from the use of MI theory; all students who completed the course showed positive gains in knowledge. Nevertheless, the high number of dropouts (50%) corresponded with an abnormally high number of students in the course who were taking remedial classes. According to Coil (1998), the results underscore the importance of basic skills for self-directed use of interactive multimedia.

PRESCRIPTIVE WRITING

Although not undertaking any research projects of their own, a number of writers have been convinced sufficiently of the theoretical strength of MI to endorse its use and application to settings involving adult learners. For example, Brougher (1997) calls for making adult education more stimulating by creating a classroom environment that is conducive to the development of the seven [sic] intelligences as proposed by Gardner; she applies these concepts to graduate education as illustrative examples. Cohen (1997) explores how the application of Gardner's MI theory can be used in creating a classroom environment that allows and encourages students to experience transformative learning and reassess themselves and their past experiences. Taylor-King (1997) summarizes and espouses the application of MI theory to the education of homeless adults. Meanwhile, Visser (1996) reviews several models for whole-brain learning, including Gardner's MI theory, and reviews favorably several games designed to stimulate the whole brain and all the senses.

CONCLUSION

It is readily apparent that there is a dearth of analytical studies devoted to examining how the application of the MI theory might help adults learn, grow, and develop--and how we as educators of adults can use the theory to aid adults in their growth processes. Furthermore, the two mentioned above used samples drawn primarily from the college classroom, and both studies examined the use of an assessment instrument. Gardner and Hatch (1990) warn that while assessments have to be developed in order "to demonstrate that the intelligences are relatively independent of one another and that individuals have distinct profiles of intelligences" (p. 7), researchers must remember that

> MI Theory grows out of a conviction that standardized tests, with their almost exclusive stress on linguistic and logical skills, are limited. As a result, the further development of MI Theory requires a fresh approach to assessment, an approach consistent with the view that there are a number of intelligences that are developed--and can best be detected--in culturally meaningful activities. (p. 7)

Consequently, it is probably appropriate that a number of studies describe action research efforts that have confirmed what many adult educators have felt intuitively: Classroom methods, strategies, and approaches developed on the basis of MI theory do work. These findings confirm the writings of those who have suggested, prescriptively, various ways in which MI theory can be applied in adult education. There is certainly much room for adult educators to explore how MI theory might provide 1) insight into a better understanding of the nature and needs of our adult students and 2) valuable suggestions for helping them in their learning. In either case, a sizeable research agenda can be developed, including many opportunities for practitioner and action research.

REFERENCES

Armstrong, T. (1993). *7 kinds of smart: Discovering and using your natural intelligences.* New York: Plume/Penguin.

Armstrong, T. (1994). *Multiple intelligences in the classroom.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Brougher, J. Z. (1997). Creating a nourishing learning environment for adults using Multiple Intelligence Theory. *Adult Learning, 8*(4), pp. 28-29.

Campbell, B. (1994). *The multiple intelligences handbook.* Stanwood, WA: Campbell & Associates.

Campbell, L., Campbell, B., & Dickinson, D. (1993). *Teaching and learning through multiple intelligences.* Tucson, AZ: Zephyr Press.

Christison, M. A. (1996, Winter). Teaching and learning languages through multiple intelligences. *TESOL Journal, 6,* pp. 10-14.

Cohen, L. R. (1997). I ain't so smart and you ain't so dumb: Personal reassessment in transformative learning. In P. A. Cranton (Ed.)., *Transformative learning in action: Insights from practice* (pp. 61-68). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. (New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education, No. 74)

Coil, R. A. (1998). Multiple intelligences and computer assisted learning with adult learners: An examination of learner outcomes. *Dissertations Abstracts International 58*(12), 4523A. (University Microfilms No. AAT 98-17952)

Donovan, B., & Iovino, R. M. (1994, October). *A "multiple intelligences" approach to expanding and celebrating teacher portfolios and student portfolios.* Paper presented at the Northeastern Educational Research Association. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 416 209)

Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligences.* New York: Basic Books.

Gardner, H. (1991). *To open minds.* New York: Basic Books.

Gardner, H. (1993). *Multiple intelligences: The theory in practice.* New York: Basic Books.

Gardner, H., & Hatch, T. (1990). *Multiple intelligences go to school: Educational implications of the theory of multiple intelligences* (Technical Report No. 4). New York: Bank Street College of Education, Center for Technology in Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 324 366)

Hogan, K. D. (1995, Winter). Reaching ESL students: The multiple intelligences instrument. *Connections: A Journal of Adult Literacy, 5*, 17-23. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 407 493)

Jean, M. (1999, March). MI, the GED and me. *Focus on Basics, 3*(A), 1, 3-5.

Kallenbach, S. (1999, March). Emerging themes in adult multiple intelligences research. *Focus on Basics, 3*(A), 16-20.

Lazear, D. (1991a). *Seven ways of knowing: Teaching for multiple intelligences.* Palatine, IL: Skylight.

Lazear, D. (1991b). *Seven ways of teaching: The artistry of teaching with multiple intelligences.* Palatine, IL: Skylight.

Lazear, D. (1993). *Seven pathways of learning: Teaching students and parents about multiple intelligences.* Tucson, AZ: Zephyr Press.

Lazear, D. (1994). *Multiple intelligence approaches to assessment: Solving the assessment conundrum.* Tucson, AZ: Zephyr Press.

Leach, J. (1991). A profile of six accelerated learning language teachers of suggestopedia (ALTOS) at a selected language and cultural center. *Dissertations Abstracts International 51*(11), 3653A. (University Microfilms No. AAT 91-09842)

Merson, M. (Ed.). (1995, Winter). The learning disabilities/Lack of progress issue. *Connections: A Journal of Adult Literacy, 5.* (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 407 493)

Quiñones, W., & Cornwell, B. (1999, March). "I can't learn this!" An MI route around resistance. *Focus on Basics, 3*(A), 10-13.

Shearer, C. B. (1997, August). *Reliability, validity and utility of a multiple intelligences assessment for career planning.* Paper presented at the 105th annual convention of the American Psychological Association, Chicago, IL. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 415 476)

Shearer, C. B., & Jones, J. A. (1994, April). *The validation of the Hillside Assessment of Perceived Intelligences (HAPI): A measure of Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences.* Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 372 007)

Streck, C. (1995, Winter). Finding the key: The educational autobiography & theory of multiple intelligences. *Connections: A Journal of Adult Literacy, 5*, 52-56. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 407 493)

Taylor-King, S. (1997, July). *Using multiple intelligences and multi-sensory reinforcement approaches to enhance literacy skills among homeless adults.* Paper presented at the International Congress on Challenges to Education, Kihei, HI. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 417 332)

Teele, S. (1991). *Teaching and assessment strategies appropriate for the multiple intelligences.* Riverside, CA: University of California Extension.

Thornburg, D. (1989). *The role of technology in teaching to the whole child: Multiple intelligences in the classroom.* Los Altos, CA: Starsong Publications.

Visser, D. R. (1996). That's using your brain! *Training & Development, 50*(9), pp. 38-40.

Trenton R. Ferro, Associate Professor, Adult & Community Education, 206 Stouffer Hall, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, 1175 Maple St., Indiana, PA 15705-0001; 724/357-4539; 724/357-7821 (fax). trferro@grove.iup.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

ADULT EDUCATOR ROLE IN FOSTERING COLLABORATIVE LEADERSHIP: THE MILWAUKEE EXPERIENCE IN SCHOOL-FAMILY-COMMUNITY PARTNERSHIPS

Daniel V. Folkman
Kalyani Rai

ABSTRACT

This paper describes the educational leadership role the authors are playing in Milwaukee's 21st Century Community Learning Centers program. Our approach integrates Ron Cervero and Author Wilson's concept of negotiating power and interests in the program planning process and the synergistic leadership model developed by Alan Knox with creating model II learning systems as articulated by Chris Argyris and Donald Schon. A model of collaborative leadership is described and its application is demonstrated in two critical incidents. The article concludes with a set of principles that guide our practice in this large-scale community development initiative.

INTRODUCTION

Over the past two years the US Department of Education has initiated the 21st Century Community Learning Centers Program. The vision is to open local schools as neighborhood learning center serving children, families and area residents with a wide array of educational, recreation, and social programs for children, families and adult learners. Milwaukee has received two federal grants that support 19 Centers (CLC) located throughout the central city.

> This paper explores the collaborative leadership role the authors are playing in this community learning center initiative. Emphasis is placed on our effort to foster critical self-reflective dialogue among the multiple stakeholders who are implementing this program. The goal is to promote a model of participatory management and program planning and to build a sense of community among the diverse groups who are brought together through this large-scale, city wide initiative. Two critical incidents are presented as case studies of our educational role. The paper ends with a set principles that guide our practice.

THREE PERSPECTIVES ON EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Our role in this large-scale community education initiative integrates three perspectives on educational leadership in adult education practice. We couple Ron Cervero and Author Wilson's (1994) concept of negotiating power and interests in the program planing process and the synergistic leadership model developed by Alan Knox (1993) with an action science perspective as articulated by Chris Argyris and Donald Schön (Argyris & Schön 1974, 1996).

1. Negotiating Interests in the Program Planning Process

Cervero and Wilson (1994) argue that the program planning process is inherently a political activity that involves negotiating interests among stakeholders while operating within a social and institutional context. They provide a program planning model that is descriptive of what planners actually do as well as helpful in terms of everyday practice. Accordingly, they frame a four-cell typology that relates the source of power with relations among interests. The result is a set of four action strategies: (a) *satisfice*--find satisfactory solutions rather than optimal solutions; (b) *network*--form relationships with people who need to be brought together in planning and implementing the program; (c) *bargain*--when facing multiple and competing interests seek political compromise; and (d) *counteract*--when power and interest are distributed asymmetrically, anticipate how different stakeholders will act and intervene to give all interests an effective voice in constructing the program.

2. Providing Synergistic Leadership

Knox takes a broad and inclusive view of the program planning process. Program planning entails technical skills that are implemented within the context of real world contingencies that necessarily involve practical and political tradeoffs in developing, administering, and facilitating educational programs as well as exercising educational leadership within one's institution and the larger community. He is particularly interested in the exercise of educational leadership within an open systems environment that is aimed at comprehensive program development and collaboration among many and varied interests (Knox, 1993). From this perspective, educational leadership involves a set of conceptual, political, interpersonal, and technical skills that allows the practitioner to work effectively among different audiences with different backgrounds, different agendas, different capacities, different resources, and different levels of power and influence.

Cervero and Wilson's view of program planning as being inherently a social process involving the political negotiation of interests is compatible with the synergistic leadership model as advocated by Knox. The synergistic leader must posses a set of interpersonal skills that allows for the continuous negotiation and re-negotiation of the competing interests and political conflicts that will surely arise in any effort to initiate and sustain a collaborative network.

3. Action Science

The action science perspective articulated by Chris Argyris and Donald Schön (1974, 1996) is highly compatible with leadership models that emphasize interpersonal skills aimed at negotiating agreement among stakeholder groups under conditions that are continuously changing, ambiguous, stressful, and threatening. Argyris and Schön focus on the underlying values, feelings, and intentions that frame everyday practice. They argue that in spite of the infinite variations and permutations of human behavior, the reasoning-in-action employed by most people is surpassingly simple and invariant and is called Model I.

Model I identifies a set of basic values that govern most everyone's behavior. These values include (a) wining not losing, (b) maintaining unilateral control, (c) minimizing negative feelings, and (d) being rational. Action strategies taken to implement these values include (a) designing and managing the environment unilaterally, (b) owing and controlling the task, and (c) unilaterally protecting self while (d) unilaterally protecting others from being hurt. The combination of these values and action strategies produce environments in which individuals and groups are seen as defensive and people feel little freedom of choice, lack internal commitment and avoid taking risks. Further, Model I environments suffer from miscommunication, mistrust, and over protectiveness coupled with limited learning and escalating error.

Model I is the theory-in-use that most people employ in their everyday action and has been inferred from studies involving people from different race, cultural, and educational backgrounds. It is acquired through the socialization process and implemented at the tacit or unconscious level. People don't realize they are operating from a Model I framework. In fact, when asked they will articulate a very different model which Argyris and Schön (1974, 1996) label Model II. Model II values include having (a) valid information, (b) free and informed choice, (c) internal commitment to the choice, and d) constant monitoring of its implementation. Action strategies taken on behalf of these values include (a) sharing the design and management of the environment among those who have competence and contribute to the design and implementing actions, (b) tasks are controlled jointly, (c) protection of self is a joint enterprise, and (d) shared protection of others. In Model II environments individuals advocate their positions with inquiry and illustrate their attributions and evaluations with observable data. Conflicting views are encouraged in order to facilitate public testing. A Model II environment promotes understanding and empathy, productive problem solving and a sense of social justice among the members.

A cautionary note is conveyed in the action science perspective. While most people subscribe to Model II, the production of a Model II environment is a rare event. Regardless of the best intentions of scholars like Cervero, Wilson, and Knox to provide guidelines for implementing best practices, a Model I theory-in-use will govern the on-line action strategies of most people. The result will be a pattern of interaction that restricts learning and is characterized by low trust, defensive reasoning, rising frustration, and a sense of injustice among the parties concerned. Further, these unanticipated outcomes will be undiscussible and their undiscussibility will be undiscussible. The self-sealing nature of Model I reasoning-in-action puts at risk the opportunity to create Model II learning communities that are consistent with the espoused values and commitment of most participants in a planning and community development process.

The action science perspective seeks to describe the interpersonal dynamics that occur in every day practice. Emphasis is placed on identifying dilemmas and contradictions that stem from the Model I reasoning-in-action that are counterproductive to the Model II values that most participants articulate but are unable to implement. The goal is to create a learning environment in which to internalize Model II values and to practice Model II skills while remaining focused on everyday matters. Accordingly, action science and its Model II prescription is not an alternative to the guidelines and heuristics associated with productive planning and synergistic leadership. Rather, it is an invitation to implement those recommendations with Model II values and action strategies.

CASE STUDIES

How is this accomplished? We operate on the assumption that adults learn by critically reflecting on experience. We view our role as adult educators and community education practitioners as fostering critical reflection among participants involved in community development initiatives. Our focus is on the interpersonal transactions among the participants as they go about implementing their program. Our strategy is to capitalize on teachable moments by being active participants in the community development process with a special emphasis on facilitating the learning that occurs on-line and in real-time.

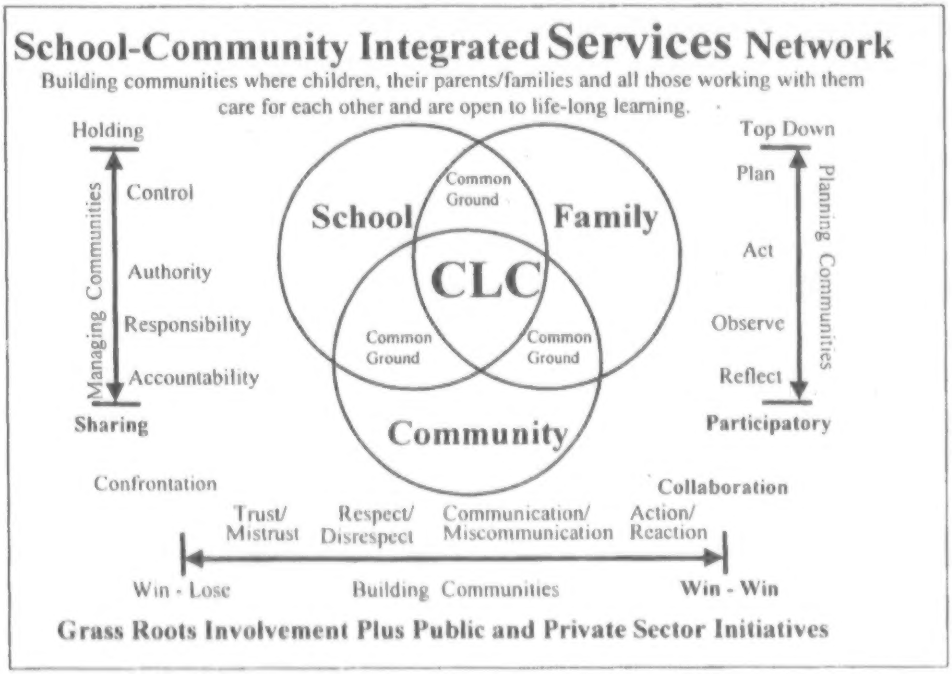
The following discussion describes the approach we are taking in an effort to create Model II learning environments or more realistically moments of Model II dialogue within the 21st Century Community Learning Center initiative being implemented in Milwaukee, Wisconsin. We offer two examples that occurred in the first year of the program. These two incidents are selected because they highlight the commitment to Model II values. They also reveal the contradictions and dilemmas that arise during a program's operation, the ability to learn and respond effectively, and the creation of new contingencies that emerge out of the response.

1. The School Community Integrated Services Network (SCISN)

SCISN is a network of community agencies, service providers, public officials, residents and other stakeholders who are loosely organized around a commitment to work cooperatively with the Milwaukee Public Schools (MPS). One of the authors has played a major role in working with MPS to create and sustain this network. Initially, monthly meetings were held among a small group of agency and community representatives with the intent to simply share ideas on how schools, parents and community representatives can work together for the benefit of children. Quarterly forums were organized to showcase examples of cooperation occurring in different MPS schools. Over time, the size of the group grew and the focus of the discussion shifted to include issues about the nature of the SCISN network, its relationship to MPS, its role, function and value to non-MPS members, and who is in control. As much time was devoted to these discussions as was given to showcasing examples of cooperation. Some members became frustrated with the discussions because they were seen as being endless and without an easy or practical resolution. Others thought the discussions would lead to a greater understanding of what it means to be a part of collaborative network among unequal partners.

These meetings and discussions provided an opportunity for the participants to explore the dynamics of collaborative networking, not from a theoretical perspective but from the issues, pressures and controversies that were surfacing within the group. The following diagram was developed to help further the group understanding of the work they were doing in their dialogue about the nature of the SCISN network.

The following diagram captures the thrust of the dialogue among the SCISN partners. At the top is the vision of working together for the benefit of children, their parents and families through life long learning. Negotiating this vision statement occupied several meetings stretched over as many months. The issue was over whose vision, mission and priorities would frame the SCISN agenda. Certainly not MPS although it initially convened the members and framed the early agenda. Eventually, the members agreed on the idea that SCISN is about schools, families and community representatives working together on behalf of children. They also espoused a commitment to shared management of their activities, participatory planning, and building a community of collaboration and win-win opportunities for all members.


School-Community Integrated Services Network
Building communities where children, their parents/families and all those working with them care for each other and are open to life-long learning.
Holding
Control
Authority
Responsibility
Accountability
Managing Communities
Sharing
Top Down
Plan
Act
Observe
Reflect
Planning Communities
Participatory
School
Family
Community
CLC
Common Ground
Common Ground
Common Ground
Confrontation
Collaboration
Trust/ Mistrust
Respect/ Disrespect
Communication/ Miscommunication
Action/ Reaction
Win - Lose
Building Communities
Win - Win
Grass Roots Involvement Plus Public and Private Sector Initiatives

The above diagram depicts this understanding and the underlying tensions and contradictions that lie ahead as the members begin to implement their vision through the newly funded 21st Century Community Learning Centers initiative (CLC). The three circles represent the major partners and the overlapping area represents the common ground on which they collaborate. This image recognizes that each partner comes to the SCISN network with certain values, goals and agendas that are shared by other members while also remaining autonomous in terms of other priorities, needs and program activities. Much of the dialogue that occurs among network members is devoted to clarifying the common ground they share. Permeating the dialogue are the issues, dilemmas and contradictions that arise out of the group commitment to shared management, participatory planning and community building. While the members espouse shared management, when things matter the most their first inclination will be to hold on to control and authority and assign responsibility and accountability to others. While espousing participatory planning, the tendency will be to plan and implement strategies alone or in smaller groups and to claim limited time, energy and resources as justification for not being more inclusive. While collaboration and win-win outcomes are desired, when stakes are high and resources are on the table the tendency will be to revert to win-lose strategies and the use of confrontation when the outcomes are less than satisfactory. The diagram and the elaboration of its meaning is used as a tool to make discussible the undiscussible gap that exists between the members' espoused values and their on-line actions in everyday practice.

Critical Incident. The Milwaukee's CLC initiative involves the selection of local community partners to serve as the lead agency in implementing the programs at each MPS school site. An RFP process was designed to select the lead agency from applicants that would include both large and small agencies. It was hopped that groups would apply with different expertise ranging from youth serving agencies to churches to local community based organizations specializing in neighborhood revitalization and resident empowerment. A considerable amount of time was devoted to designing this process during SCISN meeting and many SCISN partners saw this as an opportunity to become a major player in this citywide initiative. Others remained skeptical claiming that the large and dominant agencies would win the contract to the exclusion of the smaller, SCISN partners. The outcome proved the skeptics right. Most lead agencies were selected based on their expertise as youth serving agencies. Most had multimillion dollar budgets with staff, resources and capacity that helped to ease the MPS principals' anxiety about the impact the after school CLC program would have on their day time school activities. Only one Lead Agency contract was awarded to a small community organization. Two community-based agencies that had been working closely with their local school were passed over for a "larger, more experienced and resourceful agency."

The next SCISN meeting promised to be challenging. Many of the members from the smaller agencies were outraged over the selection of the lead agency. From their perspective, it appeared that the values espoused in the SCISN model were simply rhetoric. When big decisions and significant resources are on the table the same old story unfolds. The large dominant partners will get larger and continue to dominate at the expense of the smaller, less resourceful and weaker members. In fact, the SCISN diagram predicts this outcome and points to the need to make the process discussible in the name of learning and self-correction. During this next SCISN meeting, the results of the lead agency selection process was reported and members were asked to express their views about the results. Those most angered were asked to state their assessment, which included the notion of conspiracy among a small group of dominant agencies including MPS. Considerable time was given to discussing the process. Several smaller agency representatives left the SCISN network out of protest. Others remained but were skeptical. The second year brought funding for 8 additional CLC sites and the need to select additional lead agencies. The results from this second round proved more beneficial to small agencies. One that was passed over in the first year is now a lead agency and several other smaller agencies were among those selected.

2. The Membership and Function of the CLC Action Learning Teams (ALT)

The SCISN model espouses commitment to shared management, participatory planning and building community among stakeholders. Toward this end, the Community Learning Center project calls for the creation of an action learning team at each CLC site. These teams are to be composed of stakeholders including the school, community agencies, families and neighborhood residents. The authors helped to design this component with the idea that stakeholders would form action research teams to assist the Centers in meeting their goals. More than a traditional advisory committee, ALT members would become involved in the center by framing and implementing action projects that address problems, challenges and shortfalls that will surely arise as the program unfolds. Care was taken to ensure that membership on the ALT would include parents and community residents along with other community and school representatives. It was recognized that the ALT would bring stakeholders to the table who normally do not work well together. In fact, some of the relations between the stakeholders are best described as adversarial. Community and parent advocates who in the past may have confronted the schools politically are now being asked to join an ALT to assist in achieving common goals.

The SCISN model points to the challenge of building communities by shifting relations from the politics of confrontation and win-lose to the process of collaboration and win-win. This is accomplished not by talking about community but by working together on projects that have a common goal. The assumption is that by working together members will build trust and respect for each other coupled with improved communication. This will happen to the extent the ALT members who are diverse in terms of race, education, expertise, power and resources can create a participatory management and planning environment in which all members have a meaningful and effective role.

Critical Incident. Early in the first year a small group of parents challenged the commitment to recruit parents and community residents to the ALT. They testified before the MPS Board demanding that the process be corrected. One of the authors testified at this board meeting to the commitment to participatory management and the need to learn from our mistakes. The incident triggered a series to meetings among the CLC management team, school board members, the parents who leveled the complaint, and other stakeholders. The result was an expanded role for SCISN by creating an Executive Committee and a resident council with 51% membership being parents and residents. Also, it was reaffirmed that membership on the local ALT must be open and inclusive. This incident also shifted the intended emphasis of the ALT from participatory action research to management and site governance. The current challenge is to define in practical terms what is meant by participatory management and bottom-up planning. Stay tuned.

CONCLUSION

In attempting to integrate the three models of leadership described at the beginning of this paper, the authors seek to incorporate the following principals into our practice.

- Focus on underlying values and assumptions that guide everyday practice.
- Understand and appreciate multiple perspectives on a given topic or event.
- See how individuals can hold multiple points of view and as a result behave in contradictory ways.
- Take the reflective turn and begin to differentiate the multiple perspectives and contradictory behavior that exists in everyday practice.
- Be willing to shift internal reasoning and feelings processes in an effort to align behavior with espoused values, goals and intentions.
- View the challenge of framing a new integration of values, feelings and intentions as a learning process characterized by trial and error.
- Accept the fact that people will behave in contradictory ways, which is best explained as an artifact of Model I reasoning-in-action.
- Make the dilemmas and contradictions that arise in everyday practice discussible with the intent of learning to shift individual and group reasoning-in-action to align with Model II values and skills.
- Keep the dialogue focused on underlying values and assumptions and the commitment to implementing action strategies that are consistent with Model II.
- Learn to take corrective action without finger pointing and blaming others for failing to be always consistent with their espoused values.

REFERENCES

Argyris, C., & Schön, D. A. (1974). *Theory in practice: Increasing professional effectiveness.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Argyris, C., & Schön, D. A. (1996). *Organizational learning II: Theory, method and practice.* New York: Addison-Wesley.

Cervero, R. M., & Wilson, A. L. (1994). *Planning responsibly for adult education: A guide to negotiating power and interests.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Knox, A. B. (1993). *Strengthening adult and continuing education: A global perspective on synergistic leadership.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Dr. Daniel V. Folkman, Associate Professor, and Dr. Kalyani Rai, Assistant Professor, Center for Urban Community Development, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, 161 West Wisconsin Ave. Milwaukee WI 43203. folkman@uwm.edu, kalyanir@uwm.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

JOHNNY *CAN* READ; HE CHOOSES NOT TO: THE READING DEVELOPMENT OF LITERATE ADULTS WHO DO NOT ENGAGE IN LEISURE READING

Karen S. Gersten

ABSTRACT

This study examines why the majority of literate adults do not choose to read even when economic and social demands require increasing literacy use. Because existing research on adult literacy habits is neither complete nor current, this study attempts to collect some information about literate adults who have not developed the reading habit. The focus is on adult students attending their first class in an accelerated bachelor's degree program, a population that recognizes the importance of literacy in the educational process and that has well established leisure habits. The subjects participated in in-depth interviews, allowing them to recall their literacy histories. Using the constant comparison method, these individual literacy histories reveal common trends with clear implications for literacy education at all levels. The greatest single variable that negatively impacts adult leisure reading is the lack of attention to the affective domain; while each subject achieved academic and professional success, none found reading pleasurable. Responses consistently referred to either ambivalent or negative early school experiences with reading; to little modeling or encouragement in the home; to feelings of frustration or impatience when attempting to read for pleasure; and to a strong desire for their children to enjoy reading.

INTRODUCTION

Most adults living in the United States can read. The 1979 U.S. Bureau of the Census reported less than one percent of the population identifying themselves as illiterate (Stedman & Kaestle, 1987). While the 1993 National Adult Literacy Survey (Kirsch, Jungeblut, Jenkins, & Kolstad, 1993) reported 21 to 23 percent of the population in the lowest level of literacy, one-quarter of this group were either recent immigrants with limited English proficiency or persons with limiting physical impairments; the overwhelming majority of healthy, native English speaking American adults could indeed read.

Most Americans can read but do not. This is especially true for leisure reading, even though school reading programs strive to develop lifelong readers. Researchers estimate that of the four out of five Americans who are able to read, only one chooses to do so (Cramer & Castle, 1994). One sample adult population read an average of 97 minutes daily in an occupational context but only 14 to 26 minutes in a leisure setting (Kirsch & Guthrie, 1984). National Assessment of Education Progress results show eighth and twelfth graders reading more in 1990 than in 1988 but enjoying it less (Foertsch, 1992). And between 93% and 97% of the National Adult Literacy Survey sample population reported using radio or television rather than print media to get information about current events, public affairs, and government issues (Kirsch et al., 1993). This research indicates that most Americans can and do read but at limited levels, for limited reasons, and with little enjoyment from the reading they do.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The literacy problem facing the United States is not simply basic literacy; it is also a population that chooses not to read. A society in which everyone participates, in which individuals are educated consumers, and in which successive generations become lifelong learners depends on a reading adult population. This study focuses on the impact of literacy habits on society, on gathering information crucial to understanding why people embrace or fail to embrace literacy, and on translating that emerging understanding into practice.

METHODOLOGY

This study used in-depth interviewing with a small sample (N = 12) to probe research questions in depth. Members of the sample population are in their first class in an accelerated degree program at a private university. This sample was chosen because they must be at least twenty-five years old and because their leisure habits, including reading, are well established.

A survey of leisure activities is used as a selection mechanism to determine amount of leisure reading. Questions on reading habits are embedded in the survey and are given no more attention than questions on other leisure activities, so respondents do not know the targeted issue. Respondents who engage in less than six hours of leisure reading per week and who are willing to be interviewed became the sample population.

To honor the advantages of interactive interviews and to keep the interviews as focused as possible, an interview guide is used in each interview. The guide uses a funnel format, proceeding from general, nonthreatening questions to more specific issues (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen, 1993; Ritchie, 1995). The funnel format allows the interviewee to share information with minimal researcher bias and the interviewer to "focus on obtaining the fullest picture that can be communicated of the interviewee's relevant constructions of reality" (Erlandson et al, 1993, p. 93).

Each interview is tape recorded, and each taped session transcribed. The transcribed interviews are coded to note trends that emerge (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). The constant comparative method, analysis of the single interview followed by comparing codes across interviews, is used to discover common elements among literate adult nonreaders (Erlandson, et al, 1993; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). After themes emerge from the interviews, a review of existing bodies of research will corroborate or contradict these themes. The merging of interviewees' life stories with existing bodies of research will provide clear direction for future research.

THE NEED TO READ

GENERAL BENEFITS

Many reasons support the importance of a populace engaging in literate activities. One critical reason is that literacy levels sufficient to meet today's demands will not be sufficient in the future (Chall, 1984; Stedman & Kaestle, 1987). Increased literacy levels are most easily achieved through regular and challenging literacy use. Another benefit of reading is "a very special type of interface with the environment, providing literate persons access to cumulative wisdom and knowledge built by previous generations and freeing the literate from reliance on less reliable oral transmission of information" (Stanovich & Cunningham, 1993, p. 212). High levels of literacy help ensure full participation in society (Hunter & Harman, 1985; Kirsch et al., 1993). In addition, vocabulary development (Stanovich, 1986), general knowledge (Stanovich & Cunningham, 1992), grades in high school, comprehension, nonverbal problem solving, and mathematics (Stanovich & Cunningham, 1993), and cultural literacy (West, Stanovich, & Mitchell, 1993) are higher among people who read than among nonreaders.

LITERACY NEEDS: ECONOMIC

The job market is shifting to jobs requiring increasingly higher levels of literacy. In 1900, 30% of the workforce were laborers, and 10% held professional, technical, or managerial positions; by 1980, only 6% were laborers, and 26% were professionals, technicians, or managers. The Bureau of Labor Statistics projects the trend for higher skills will continue through the 1990-2005 period (Berryman, 1993). "Occupations requiring little or no literacy are rapidly disappearing while newly created or changing jobs require employees to be more skilled and literate. . . . Employees must acquire and demonstrate the range of literacy skills that are required to meet a changing job market" (Kirsch & Guthrie, 1984, p. 214).

LITERACY NEEDS: SOCIAL

Citizens who do not read rely on others to interpret information for them and limit the critical thinking required to make informed decisions and to impact society. People simply cannot get the same depth of information from broadcast media as they can from written material. "The world's storehouse of knowledge is readily available for those who read, and much of this information is not usually attained from other sources" (Stanovich, West, & Harrison, 1995, p. 819). "Reading is . . . the only mass media entertainment input that is wholly user-controlled" (Nell, 1988, p. 100).

Civic responsibility also diminishes among a non-reading populace. Political empowerment requires the use of print materials for the reflection careful political analysis requires. Research with a sample population demonstrated that people who read felt more empowered and self-efficacious about political and civic matters than people who did not read regardless of backgrounds (Guthrie & Greaney, 1991).

RESULTS TO DATE

To date, all interviews have been completed, but data analysis is in its early stages. The transcription process is only partially complete, so coding is in process, taking place as transcripts are completed. In spite of the incomplete and superficial status of data analysis, consistent and interesting issues have emerged.

- *Interviewees recalled early school experiences with reading as either ambivalent or unpleasant.*

None of the interviewees recalled literacy learning as pleasurable. Some remembered little about learning to read; it was something that "just happened" sometime in primary school, but learning to read was not fun, nor did anyone recall being rewarded for learning to read either in school or at home.

One interviewee described learning to read as punitive; her teachers never rewarded a job well done but did consistently mete out punishments for errors and other perceived failings. Reactions to reading in the home were ambivalent. The result was distaste for reading and most other school activities.

Another interviewee did develop the reading habit as a young child. He recalls little recognition of his reading accomplishments in the home, but he found reward in the social recognition he received from his peers. He read books "like all the other kids" until fourth grade when he no longer perceived a "payoff," meaning he no longer saw reading as a way to fit in or be popular. He replaced reading with sports and other extracurricular activities. He does not recall missing reading or receiving any intrinsic pleasure when he did read, indicating he never truly developed the pleasure reading habit.

- *Little modeling existed in the home.*

Although a few of the interviewees recalled an adult or older sibling reading to him or her occasionally, none of the interviewees recalled the significant adults in their lives regularly reading to the children or engaging in leisure reading themselves on a regular basis. Modeling was limited and infrequent, and children were not included in reading activities.

- *Interviewees unanimously reported decreasing pleasure associated with reading in school.*

Interviewees consistently recalled reading for school as unpleasant and frustrating. They attributed this frustration to three main factors: (a) lack of choice, (b) assessment, and (c) their self-perception as poor and/or slow readers. Interviewees reported all school reading as assigned; they had to read what the school decided was interesting. As a group, they believed that self-selection of some reading would have made them enjoy reading more because they would have taken some ownership of the process. In addition, they were tested on all school reading, making the process anxiety-laden and eliminating the possibility of reading for pleasure. Finally, in spite of academic success, few perceived themselves as good readers.

- *All respondents stated that reading is important for success, especially at work, that they engage in reading as needed, but that reading is not pleasurable.*

Interviewees were consistent in expressing both the desire to read more and the frustration they feel when they do attempt pleasure reading. They do not engage in the reading process because they do not find it pleasurable, and they are frustrated because they want to enjoy reading. Avid readers, in contrast, report positive psychological and physiological change when they read (Nell, 1988).

- *All interviewees who have children want their children to read well and to enjoy reading.*

Respondents see reading as important for success at work, at home, and in society. They want their children to be successful, and they believe success depends on reading well, often, and with pleasure. The majority of respondents want to set examples for their children. While they recognize the importance of reading, they are unsure how to help their children develop the reading habit. This adds to the frustration they already associate with reading.

RESEARCH SUPPORT

The current research with this limited sample supports much of the research done to date on why some people read and others do not, research which focuses on the affective domain. While reading programs seem to be succeeding in the cognitive domain—reading skills among Americans are improving—they seem to be less successful in developing lifelong readers. Affective measures, especially attitude toward reading, are consistent constructs; positive attitudes fostered in childhood and adolescence remain positive in adulthood (Smith, 1990; Morrow, 1983). Research shows affective measures as among the most potent predictors of reading enjoyment. People who derive a great deal of pleasure from reading report reading over five times as much as people who claim to derive no pleasure from reading even when controlling for education, income, and age (Robinson, 1980). Greaney & Hegarty (1987) found the two largest correlations with book reading to be affective measures, attitude toward reading and reading for enjoyment and stimulation.

Respondents in this study collectively described themselves as weak readers or writers. This is consistent with research which shows a strong relationship between people's perceptions of their ability to achieve and actual achievement; "self-efficacy beliefs are strongly linked to achievement and achievement-level differences" (Shell, Bruning, & Colvin, 1995, p. 395; see also Nicholls, Cheung, Lauer, & Patashnick, 1989; Wigfield & Guthrie, 1995). Self-perceptions, motivation, and attitude are important determinants of reading engagement across the lifespan.

CONCLUSION

IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

More accurate information is needed about the reading habits of adults in the United States. Such information will help restructure the goals and curricula of reading programs at all levels.

The current research will continue, focusing on narrow populations with specific backgrounds and experiences. Doing so will allow the research to distinguish between variables that affect only specific groups and those that supersede specific populations. Those latter variables, if consistent over time and populations, can be generalized to a wider population.

Long-term, the research will extend to other age groups including schoolchildren with the specific goal of assessing affective variables associated with reading. The results of this research may aid the design of a measurement tool that can be applied broadly to assess both affective and cognitive student progress. It will also help integrate the varied components of students' lives, encourage parents of young children to provide literacy-rich home environments, and help teachers incorporate in-school and out-of-school literacy use to create more meaningful literacy curricula and develop skills and attitudes that will continue beyond the school years.

IMPLICATIONS FOR READING PROGRAMS

Two commonly stated goals of reading instruction are reading skill and spontaneous pleasure reading (Nell, 1988). It is clear from this study and from existing research on the reading habits of adults living in the United States that reading programs seem to be achieving the first goal but are less successful in achieving the second. These success rates may be due to the emphasis programs place on skill versus affect and to their ability to measure success in each domain.

This research demonstrates the critical importance of the affective domain in the development of lifelong readers. Reading programs will more successfully help their students gain reading skill and develop the pleasure reading habit if reading professionals focus on both the cognitive and the affective domains. Readers at all levels need to develop their reading skill, but they also need to understand how using print materials can improve their lives and the society in which they live. Reading professionals have many skills on which to focus. Those skills, however, are ineffective if students do not use them on a regular basis in their classes and apply them broadly outside the classroom environment. This research confirms existing research that the freedom to choose reading materials without the anxiety of assessment may be one key to pleasure reading (Oldfather, 1995). This research also strongly suggests the need to attend to students' perceptions of themselves as readers. This is particularly important for teachers of older students since "younger students have more positive ability beliefs and attitudes toward reading than older students" (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1995, p. 8). Using the results of this research and of upcoming research will help reading professionals build awareness of the affective domain and its powerful role in reading development and guide them as they revise their curricula to reflect their growing awareness. The result will be more effective reading programs both for the teachers and the students they serve.

REFERENCES

Berryman, S. E. (1993). Learning for the workplace. In L. Darling-Hammond (Ed.), *Review of Research in Education: Vol. 19*. Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.

Chall, J. S. (1984, January). *New views on developing basic skills with adults*. Paper presented at the National Adult Literacy Conference, Washington, DC. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 240 299)

Cramer, E. H., & Castle, M. (1994). *Fostering the love of reading: The affective domain in reading education*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Erlandson, D. A., Harris, E. L., Skipper, B. L., & Allen, S. D. (1993). *Doing naturalistic inquiry: A guide to methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Foertsch, M. A. (1992). *Reading in and out of school: Factors influencing the literacy achievement of American students in grades 4, 8, and 12 in 1988 and 1990*. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.

Greaney, V., & Hegarty, M. (1987). Correlates of leisure-time reading. *Journal of Research in Reading, 10*(1), 3-20.

Guthie, J. T., & Greaney, V. (1991). Literacy acts. In R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, & P. D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research: Vol. 2* (pp. 68-96). New York: Longman.

Kirsch, I. S., & Guthrie, J. T. (1984). Adult reading practices for work and leisure. *Adult Education Quarterly, 34*, 213-232.

Kirsch, I. S., Jungeblut, A., Jenkins, L., & Kolstad, A. (1993) *Adult literacy in America: A first look at the results of the National Adult Literacy Survey*. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.

Morrow, L. (1983). Home and school correlates of early interest in literacy. *Journal of Educational Research, 76*, 221-230.

Nell, V. (1988). The psychology of reading for pleasure: Needs and gratification. *Reading Research Quarterly, 23*, 6-50.

Nicholls, J. G., Cheung, P. C., Lauer, J., & Patashnick, M. (1989). Individual differences in academic motivation: Perceived ability, goals, beliefs, and values. *Learning and Individual Differences, 1*(1), 63-84.

Oldfather, P. (1995). Commentary: What's needed to maintain and extend motivation for literacy on the middle grades. *Journal of Reading, 38*, 420-422.

Ritchie, D. A. (1995). *Doing oral history*. New York: Twayne.

Robinson, J. (1980). The changing reading habits of the American public. *Journal of Communication, 30*, 141-152.

Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. S. (1995). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Shell, D. F., Bruning, R. H., & Colvin, C. (1995). Self-efficacy, attribution, and outcome expectancy mechanisms in reading and writing achievement: Grade-level and achievement-level differences. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 87*, 386-398.

Shell, D. F., Bruning, R. H., & Murphy, C. C. (1989). Self-efficacy and outcome expectancy mechanisms in reading and writing achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 81*, 91-100.

Smith, M. C. (1990). A longitudinal investigation of reading attitude development from childhood to adulthood. *Journal of Educational Research, 83*, 215-219.

Stanovich, K. E. (1986). Matthew effects in reading: Some consequences of individual differences in the acquisition of literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly, 21*, 360-407.

Stanovich, K. E., & Cunningham, A. E. (1993). Where does knowledge come from? Specific associations between print exposure and information acquisition. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 85*, 211-230.

Stanovich, K. E., & Cunningham, A. E. (1992). Studying the consequences of literacy within a literate society: The cognitive correlates of print exposure. *Memory and Cognition, 20*, 51-68.

Stanovich, K. E., West, R. F., & Harrison, M. R. (1995). Knowledge growth and maintenance across the life span: The role of print exposure. *Developmental Psychology, 31*, 811-826.

Stedman, L. C., & Kaestle, C .F. (1987). Literacy and reading performance in the United States: From 1880 to the present. *Reading Research Quarterly, 22*, 8-47.

Strauss, A. L., & Corbin, J. M. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

West, R. F., Stanovich, K. E., & Mitchell, H. R. (1993). Reading in the real world and its correlates. *Reading Research Quarterly, 28*, 35-50.

Wigfield, A., & Guthrie, J. T. (1995). *Dimensions of children's motivations for reading: An initial study*. Athens, GA, & College Park, MD: National Reading Research Center. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 384 010)

Karen S. Gersten, Associate Dean, Evelyn T. Stone University College, Roosevelt University, 430 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Illinois 60605. Kgersten@roosevelt.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000

ONE TO TWO HUNDRED FIFTY WWW-BASED COURSES IN TWENTY-FOUR MONTHS: AN ANALYSIS OF THE SELECTION, TRAINING, DEVELOPMENT, AND RETENTION OF FACULTY WITHIN A RAPID COURSE-GROWTH ENVIRONMENT

Inez M. Giles
Thomas G. Thompson

ABSTRACT

Successful online course delivery cannot be achieved without adequately trained and supported faculty. University of Maryland University College currently delivers over two hundred and fifty undergraduate online courses for students worldwide. (With the spring 2000 semester, the total will be over three hundred online courses.) This paper presents a case study describing the processes to manage growth of faculty selection, training and retention, and the analysis techniques that facilitate the successful completion of faculty technical and pedagogical training. There is also an evaluative element to the case study that will analyze the management of the Web-based faculty. This is achieved through a survey of academic directors who manage and staff the online faculty. It is these processes that support the exponential growth rate of online course delivery at UMUC.

INTRODUCTION

With the summer 1997 semester, University of Maryland University College (UMUC) offered one Web-based class, Accounting 321. This semester, fall 1999, there were two hundred and fifty-three undergraduate online course sections available to UMUC students worldwide. There are many factors contributing to UMUC's ability to manage the exponential growth in the online environment, some of which include the robust course development process utilized at UMUC, the online student support, including advising and 24/7 technical support, and the faculty selection and training program that has developed. This last factor, faculty management and training, is the focus of this paper. Faculty selection and training for the WWW-based courses overlaps with the strategies used to prepare classroom faculty. A case study approach was used to conduct the study because it permits the exploration of faculty issues within a real-life context.

University of Maryland University College faculty, both graduate and undergraduate, are adjunct practitioners, twenty-five percent of whom have taught for UMUC for 10 years or more. These faculty are from a variety of professions including database managers on staff at the Pentagon, tenured professors at colleges and universities in the Washington D.C. area, as well as self-employed consultants and entrepreneurs managing their own businesses. The online faculty have one focus in common, they enjoy teaching adult students at a distance. As an aside, with increasing frequency, UMUMC is hiring and training online faculty worldwide.

Distance delivery is not new to UMUC. We began course delivery using the British Open University model in 1972. In support of distance delivery, a team approach to course development was instituted. The course development team included a course author, peer reviewer, editor, and an instructional designer. This team developed an extensive syllabus and other course materials including a comprehensive course guide. UMUC began to offer online courses in 1990 using proprietary conferencing software and course materials developed by the course development teams. As course delivery moved to the online environment, the teams became more technologically oriented and the course materials became less print-based. UMUC recognized early in the process that valued faculty would have to be retooled for the online environment. As Willis (1994) writes, "Faculty training is critical to the success of any distance education program" (p. 277).

Briefly, UMUC's award-winning faculty development program for the online environment formally began in 1993. From the onset, the goal was to enable the faculty participant to understand the requirements of the virtual environment. Successfully teaching online, especially in the Web environment with the availability of hypertext links, meant faculty had to understand the technical as well as the pedagogical shift that had to be made in their teaching. In addition faculty had to begin to understand there had been a fundamental change from the instructor-centered to a learner-centered environment. (Willis, 1994; Peters, 1998).

During the first two weeks of the five-week training session, faculty see the virtual classroom from the student's perspective, and develop what Willis (1994) refers to as "an understanding and appreciation for the distant students' lifestyle" (p. 278). Then during the third week of the training, faculty participants transition to their individual online classrooms, where they begin to develop their course materials and begin in earnest to acquire the skills to teach effectively online. There is a point, hopefully early in the third week, that faculty begin to feel comfortable with the concept of technology as the primary mode of course delivery. The training exercises are designed to facilitate faculty understanding of the breadth of resources available to them as they design their individual course exercises and assignments, as well as developing their requisite conferencing skills as moderators facilitating student collaboration (Winiecki, 1999).

Some traditional faculty experience mild discomfort at the prospect of losing what they refer to as "the warm fuzzies of the personal student contact" they have come to enjoy in face-to-face teaching. It is only after completion of the training session, and sometimes, only after their peer mentoring segment of the training, do these faculty come to realize the depth of the inter-relationships that take place between student and faculty and among the students themselves in the virtual classroom. Once faculty teaching online have experienced the depth of the virtual relationships, and comprehend the resultant possibilities, they can begin to more effectively use the Web in the development of course materials, assignments and exercises. One of the core goals of the UMUC training program is to facilitate this understanding.

Members of the faculty receive a summative rating at the end of five weeks as either "certified" or "not certified." Only recently have training facilitators begun adding qualitative remarks, that serve as a formative evaluation for directors to use in their decision whether or not to staff a particular faculty member. If the faculty member does not receive a "certified" rating after their first training session they can re-enroll in a subsequent training session, so that they can begin teaching online for UMUC

To support and sustain growth in online course delivery, UMUC uses a centralized, structured approach in the development of Web-based courses and in the development of its faculty training programs. Faculty selection, quality control in course delivery, ongoing monitoring and ongoing faculty development issues were left to the discretion of the academic discipline directors, however. UMUC is a full-support distance education institution. This means there is a broad range of institutional, faculty and course support provided to online web teaching (Thompson, 1999). The directors' course management techniques were the focus of the survey conducted for this case study. The findings, conclusions and recommendations are discussed in the following paragraphs.

METHODOLOGY

The case study approach allows for analysis where the boundaries between the phenomenon and the context are not obvious. Merriam (1998) described the rationale for a case study approach:

> A case study design is employed to gain an in-depth understanding of the situations and the meaning for those involved. The interest is in process rather than outcomes, in context rather than a specific variable, in discovery rather than confirmation. Insights gleaned from case studies can directly influence policy, practice, and future research. (p 19)

The case study is a particularly good means of educational evaluation because of the ability to explore causal links. It is also useful where there are multiple outcomes (Merriam, 1988;Yin, 1994).

A survey was e-mailed to the deans and academic directors. There was one follow-up by e-mail if a response was not received in one week after the first e-mail.

The analysis was performed by pattern matching of the deans' responses with the responses of the academic directors. Where the patterns of director responses match those of the deans, the internal validity of the study is strengthened (Yin, 1994)

There were two hypotheses regarding the management approaches used by academic directors. Firstly, the directors from technical disciplines such as computer, business and hard sciences would utilize a more structured approach. The second hypothesis is that the directors have not refined programs for the on-going monitoring of web faculty, nor developed mentoring programs.

FINDINGS

The analysis of responses to the survey is organized by the order of question asked. In a qualitative analysis meaning is sought rather than a quantification or tabulation. Listed below is a discussion of the major issues and themes identified by the academic directors as a result of this survey.

IDENTIFICATION OF POTENTIAL FACULTY

The most common theme to emerge from the responding directors was that the potential online faculty member should have an identifiable interest in technology, the WWW specifically. One director stated "we recruit from our better classroom faculty who have shown an interest in web teaching."

Other possible responses to the question of how potential web faculty are identified included; interest in the subject, faculty specifically recruited to teach the online class, web training is required for all faculty. Categories of responses were similar for deans and directors responding to the survey.

Several responding directors suggested that a different approach to web faculty staffing might be appropriate for existing and for new UMUC faculty. In the case of existing faculty, academic directors have an opportunity to make an initial assessment of their pedagogical skills before suggesting the faculty attend the web training. Some directors suggested that the less experienced faculty new to UMUC should teach in the classroom for one or more semesters before being assigned a web course and begin teaching online.

A significant survey result is that the computer and technical business disciplines ask all new faculty to attend the training session immediately upon being hired. Other disciplines wait until a course is identified and available for staffing before asking the faculty to attend the training.

USAGE OF WEBTYCHO TRAINING FACILITATOR REPORTS

Both deans responding to the survey, emphasized that training facilitator reports on faculty should play a large role in the director's final decision whether or not to staff a particular faculty member for a web course. The deans suggested that in instances where there is concern expressed by the trainer, specific follow-up should be made, and perhaps, actual course assignment should be deferred for a semester while additional training is obtained. The practices described by a majority of the directors responding to the survey generally followed these guidelines. A few directors, however, relied upon a pass/fail rating, rather than the formative facilitator progress assessments. Lack of time to properly digest the remarks was cited in several of these cases.

FIRST SEMESTER MONITORING

Directors responding to the survey monitor the new-to-web teachers in their first semester of teaching. Most directors perform periodic checks in the online courses. The remainder of the directors examine the syllabus, the course goals, and outcomes assessment strategies. Use of additional peer monitoring was mentioned by half of the respondents. The deans felt that periodic discussion with faculty peers were of critical importance to successful quality control for online courses.

One of the directors describes a six step process for mentoring during the first semester that was significantly more comprehensive that any other directors' approach. One-half of the directors mentioned that monitoring is increased when there is evidence of a problem from any source. Student course and instructor evaluations were used by several directors.

ON-GOING MONITORING PROGRAMS

The mentoring efforts in the subsequent semester are generally reduced unless a specific problem is identified. Only one academic director continued checks the online classroom after a faculty member's first semester of web teaching.

USAGE OF MENTORING PROGRAM

Most of the directors surveyed utilize some form and level of mentoring effort. Both deans and directors agree on the importance of mentoring, but there are numerous questions about the mentor availability, mentor compensation and usability of mentors when they are from different disciplines.

ASSIGNMENT OF SUBSEQUENT WEB TEACHING ASSIGNMENTS

There is a high level of concurrence between deans and directors with regard to monitoring activities, mentor reports, student evaluations and self-reports by faculty. All have an important role in determining subsequent staffing opportunities for web faculty.

MAXIMUM NUMBER OF WEB COURSE TO BE ASSIGNED PER SEMESTER

Most directors felt that two online web courses were a reasonable limit and if the adjunct faculty member did not have a full time job that three would be permissible. Most directors felt that there still should be some classroom teaching to maintain a balanced perspective. Interestingly the deans were both in favor of allowing four web courses per semester. Four courses make up the maximum teaching load for all delivery formats if the faculty person is not employed full time.

MOST IMPORTANT AREAS IDENTIFIED FOR DEVELOPMENT

Respondents were asked to identify the one thing they would change if they had the authority.
A majority would review the structure of the training program with a view to separate the technical and pedagogical components. Several directors also expressed a desire to have advanced and discipline-specific modules added to the training program. The deans concurred with this suggestion and added that the pool of available web teachers should to be expanded so that the number of qualified teachers available would not be an impediment to growth. Mentoring and user-friendly, technical documentation (i.e., HTML) were also suggested.

LIMITATIONS

Ten or 40% of academic directors responded to the e-mail questionnaire in total. The pattern of responses for non-respondents could have been different. If so the study would contain non-response error (Groves & Couper, 1998).

A written questionnaire was sent by email. Therefore no probing was done to explore answers that appeared incomplete. Time constraints did not allow in-person, semi-structured interviews. To obtain meaning within context, the data collection procedure needs to be sensitive to the underlying meaning (Yin, 1994).

The questionnaire focused upon reuse rather than retention strategies. These are different issues. Retention policy needs to consider a range of faculty issues including course content ownership, release time, additional compensation, tenure and promotion implications (Olcott & Wright, 1995; Wolcott, 1997).

The results of this study are specific to UMUC. The results may be of some value to institutions with organizational structures and distance education philosophies which are similar to UMUC's. This is a limited set of institutions.

CONCLUSIONS

When this study was begun, it was assumed that the academic directors for technical disciplines would manage the hiring of faculty and the course delivery process differently. This hypothesis was proven to be the case across most aspects of the hiring, monitoring and course assignment processes queried in the survey.

The second hypothesis that the academic directors' primary focus would be on the hiring, training and first semester of teaching also was confirmed by the responses to the survey. .

In order to better facilitate director monitoring it is recommended that a profile of a "successful" online faculty member be built and distributed to directors during a training session designed specifically to assist academic directors with the online faculty management process. Management, working with directors, will have to develop or acquire the resources required to adequately monitor quality online course delivery. Directors should be encouraged to develop a significant pool of web-trained faculty to ensure growth opportunities can be met. The on-going mentoring process should be refined and a formalized feedback process should be initiated.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Strategies should be developed to improve the response rate and determine the nature of the non-respondents to determine non-response error. Semi-structured interviews with probing should be included to insure that the meaning of responses is understood.

The questions on mentoring programs and on-going monitoring of web faculty should be expanded so that the perceived needs of the directors are captured.

REFERENCES

Groves, R. M., & Couper, M. P. (1998). *Nonresponse in household interview surveys.* New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Merriam, S. B. (1988). *Case study research in education: A qualitative approach.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Olcott, D., & Wright, S. J. (1995). An institutional support framework for increasing faculty participation in post secondary distance education. *The American Journal of Distance Education*, 9(3), 5-17.

Peters, O. (1998). *Learning and teaching in distance education*. London: Kogan Page.

Powers, B. (1992). *Instructor excellence*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Thompson, T. G. (1999, October). *The topology of support for web course development and alternative institutional responses* [On-line]. Paper presented at the Fifth International Conference on Asynchronous Learning Networks, College Park, MD. Available: http://www.aln.org/alnconf99/presentations/convertedfiles/30/

Willis, B. (1994). Enhancing faculty effectiveness in distance education. In B. Willis (Ed.), *Distance education, strategy, and tools*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications.

Winiecki, D. J. (1999). Keeping the thread: Adapting conversational practice to help distance students and instructors manage discussions in an asynchronous learning network. *DEOSNEWS* [On-line serial], 9(2). Available: http://www.ed.psu.edu/acsde/deosnews9.2.htm

Wolcott, L. L. (1997). Tenure, promotion and distance education: Examining the culture of faculty rewards. *The American Journal of Distance Education, 11*(2), 3-18.

Yin, R. K. (1994). *Case study research: Designs and methods* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Inez M. Giles, Ph.D., Director, Distance Education Resource Management, University of Maryland University College, University Blvd. at Adelphi Road, College Park, MD 20742-1660, Igiles@umuc.edu

Thomas G. Thompson, Director, General Business and Human Technologies, University of Maryland University College, University Blvd. at Adelphi Road, College Park, MD 20742-1660, tthompson@umuc.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

DIALOGUE FOR UNDERSTANDING, DIALOGUE FOR ACTION:

TENSIONS IN REAL WORLD PRACTICE

Michelle Glowacki-Dudka
Boyd Rossing

ABSTRACT

In early 1996, the director of a non-profit urban ministry organization convened a small, multi-sector planning group to develop a new approach for fostering non-violent, social change grounded in deeper shared values and spiritual connections across diverse, often polarized constituencies in the local context. Over the next four years, a community forum model was developed, practiced, elaborated, and refined.

As the model evolved, questions arose about the purpose of dialogue, how to reach different audiences, whether to introduce an action component, and connection with organizational mission. Over the four years there were some shifts in how these questions were addressed. The model of dialogue used shifted from dialogue for awareness and understanding (Bohm, 1990), to dialogue for action (Freire, 1985; Shor, 1992). Accompanying this shift was a change in audience composition, moving from an audience spanning perspectives from the religious right and left to an action-oriented audience with a common perspective around a controversial social issue. The members of the planning committee and the chosen topics also reflect this shift.

In this presentation, we will explore the nature of this shift, consider contributing factors, and raise questions regarding the roles of adult education in dialogue and social action.

INTRODUCTION

In 1996, the director of a church outreach network office, Madison-area Urban Ministry (MUM) assembled a group of community members representing faith communities on the liberal left and the conservative right, as well as civic/university units concerned with community building and change. They came together to develop a new approach for community problem-solving and change with the potential for linking faith communities to social action based on storytelling and dialogue. Through exposure to diverse experiences and perspectives, the participants might discover deeper human connections, learn from one another, and also might positively influence the larger culture of communication and problem solving in the local area.

From the outset planners faced challenges in achieving their goals in real practice. Planners of liberal persuasions sought an opportunity for persons to respectfully share and learn from diverse life experiences; whereas conservative planners sought an opportunity for declaring one's beliefs in a respectful context, however discouraging the idea that participants should come to agreement or take action regarding issues explored in forums. The planning committee devised a story-dialogue model which integrated these concerns. A safe space is created via a set of groundrules supported by facilitators, and a balance in sharing beliefs and experiences is achieved through carefully developed focus questions. In the first year, the design proved remarkably effective in supporting open, vulnerable, rewarding sharing among diverse participants.

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

Throughout the past year, we have conducted focus groups with participants, held debriefing sessions with facilitators, and critically reflected about the process of dialogue used in this practical model. We have observed that over time, the model evolved in a direction less attuned to engaging a diverse audience in dialogue for mutual understanding toward a model that gives greater emphasis to converging on needed social action by a less diverse set of participants. In this presentation, we will explore the nature of this shift, consider contributing factors, and most importantly, explore implications for the roles of adult education in dialogue and social action.

INITIAL DESIGN OF THE SERIES

The first year, the dialogue forums consisted of a program that would bring people from the religious right and left together to explore contentious issues in a new way. Topics during the first year included: sexual orientation, welfare, images of God, family values, life and death, and race and economics. The goal was to find a way for a deeper level of exchange than that of soundbites and stereotypes which typifies public exchanges in other venues. Planners hoped to offer a bridge beneath the contending beliefs and diverse experiences of participants which might open the way to alternative strategies for addressing problems and issues in less violent, more humane, constructive, and lasting ways.

To begin the forum program, two presentations were made addressing the question of the evening from different perspectives, thus modeling the small group dialogue. Once the issue and stories were presented, the groups would dialogue about the topics. The dialogue model provided a safe environment allowing expression of private beliefs and experiences and a mutual exploration of the meanings of individual's stories to the individual, the group, and the larger community. The forum concluded with a thirty-minute open session with the full audience where individuals had an opportunity to share observations, insights, or other comments reflecting their experience with the topic and with the dialogue.

The concept of dialogue offered guidelines for sharing one's views, listening, withholding judgment, respecting silence, and allowing meanings and understandings to unfold from the process. In the small groups, each participant was able to briefly share their story before asking another participant to speak, and two-way conversation was limited. Considering the topics in the first year, they felt that people attending forums should not be expected to quickly find common ground across deep differences in belief and experience in a short group exchange. In particular, participants were not required to agree on joint action, nor called to take individual action. Planners believed an emphasis on action would discourage diversity among participants. The small group dialogues were situated within a larger format to create a broader sense of community and understanding. Each month's forum was held in a different location as a way of increasing exposure and participation throughout the Madison area and across churches of the religious left and right. The group sought to create a welcoming climate of human connection by sharing a light, informal meal when participants arrived for the evening program.

The dialogue series occurred in a context of broad community support. A wide range of community organizations helped to co-sponsor the series by providing forum sites, publicizing forums, and giving donations. The number of co-sponsors increased each year from 12 in the first year to over 40 in the fourth year. Organizations ranged from churches and religious organizations to community-based organizations and interest groups, to government, university, business, and labor units.

THE SERIES--EVOLUTION FROM YEAR TO YEAR

As the series evolved over four years, the design and purpose also evolved. The first series was entitled *Beyond Soundbites: Real Dialogue Between the Religious Right and Left*. The planning committee promoted this dialogue around several contentious issues. They hoped to draw a growing cross section of community members by appealing to their topic interests. They wanted to build broader understanding of each other for one-time participants and to teach the storying/dialogue process to those who returned to meetings from month to month.

In the first year, participants who had previously attended other MUM activities formed a core group of attendees. Among this group, many were retired and somewhat liberal in orientation. However, each forum topic and location attracted new participants including younger people and people of conservative perspectives. Although a balance between people from the religious left and right was sought, the forums tended instead to attract more people on the left than the right.

In the second year, the director convened a planning group which prepared a proposal to and received a grant from the Wisconsin Humanities Council to continue the forums. The theme for the second series was *Beyond Violence: A Shared Dialogue on Judgment, Guilt and Forgiveness*. The second year's concept was to seek a deeper level of dialogue by: (1) addressing the dynamics of judgment, guilt and forgiveness as underlying sources of violence and nonviolence; (2) returning to aspects of a common theme each month; and (3) priming each dialogue with a provocative humanist presentation. The grant guidelines calling for inclusion of scholarly humanists. Thus a 30-minute presentation by a humanist was incorporated in lieu of the two personal experience and belief presentations used in the first series. The humanist presentations served to provoke and set the stage for the small group dialogue rather than modeling personal sharing. The depth of personal reflection and sharing grew as participants considered the topics. The forum continued to meet in a different church each time with participation ranging from 80 to 130 each month. Participants included people with both liberal and conservative social and religious philosophies, although people on the Left still came in greater numbers.

For the third year, the series theme emerged from concerns of alienation and community. The planners sought to reach a broader audience than in the first two series including both secular and non-secular communities with a variety of socioeconomic backgrounds, ages, and family situations. The theme selected to reach this broader audience was *Searching for Work, Family and Community Connections in Today's World: A Dialogue Exploring Better Ways to Live*. Topics were selected addressing practical daily living concerns. Co-sponsors and sites representing government, business, and community sectors were recruited and only one forum was scheduled to be conducted in a church. In other respects, some of the original features of the forum model were restored. The forums began with two presentations intended to model the personal sharing sought in small groups, as had occurred during the first year. Also the small group dialogue was given more time, since its value seemed to be lessened somewhat in the second year due to limits on time.

During the summer of 1998, the Executive Director resigned and a new director was hired. She brought several new staff members on board who quickly assumed contributing roles for the series drawing on the experience of the existing planning committee. They encouraged the committee to seek a stronger link between dialogue, personal, and social action. This interest was reflected in the questions developed to guide small group dialogue. During the third year one question focused on the individual's view of the topic for the evening, and a second question asked participants to discuss collectively how "we" can address the topic. Facilitators continued to encourage participants to share personal experiences which influenced their views. Although not aiming for group agreement on desired collective action, the facilitators also encourage more attention to ideas for action and allowed areas of agreement to emerge.

The attendance results were contrary to expectations. Many of the previous participants did not return due to topics that were not perceived to relate to older adults, yet new participants did not attend in numbers to replace those that were lost. An average of 45 participants attended. The intention to reach larger numbers was not fulfilled, however the smaller gathering contributed to a more informal and intimate atmosphere in the sharing during the small groups and in the final assembly.

This year the forum series focused on issues pertaining to connections between the corrections system and the community, under the title: *The Peace Filled Community: What Does Justice Require of Us?* The series length was reduced to five forums to accommodate MUM's other program commitments in the latter part of the year. Most of the forums were once again held in churches. The series established a stronger focus on engaging participants in identifying needed actions and supported this by distributing information on action initiatives in the community. The planners also designed a simulation where the participants would act out the lives of a recently released ex-offender and final forum where participants would be invited to identify action directions and make action commitments.

Changes were also made in recognition that many forum participants might have little direct personal experience with crime and the corrections system. The dialogue questions shifted away from sharing personal experience and toward analyzing larger social structures. Planners recruited persons with corrections experience to join dialogue tables and add their experience-based perspectives to the dialogue. The series has attracted a significant number of African American participants and others who had direct family experience with the corrections system resulting in the most ethnically and economically diverse audience of the four years. In the forums, attendance has increased again with roughly 80 to 120 participants at each forum.

THEMES IN THE SHIFT

As noted previously, we have seen a shift in the series from an emphasis on engaging a diverse audience in dialogue for mutual understanding to emphasis on engaging people interested in social change in a dialogue promoting social action. Several themes characterize this shift.

THEME 1: WHO PLANS--SHIFTS IN PLANNING COMMITTEE

The composition of the planning committee shaped the direction and focus of the forums. In the first year of the forums, the planning committee included individuals with perspectives from both the religious left and right who could involve both constituencies in the dialogues. With each passing year, the representation of the religious right on the planning committee decreased causing less attention to be paid to the balance of left/right diversity in the audience. Also as a new director and staff replaced the former director, they brought a different philosophy and emphasis when planning the forums. They began to seek more action and to steer the dialogue toward larger social issues that they were concerned with. They also brought a more defined agenda to the forums where originally there had not been a specific learning agenda articulated, other than increasing awareness of multiple perspectives.

THEME 2: HOW ORGANIZED--SHIFTS IN THE DIALOGUE FORMAT

The dialogue forums maintained some consistency in format and groundrules throughout the four years; yet the design evolved as various elements changed. The first year held to the model of dialogue for awareness, but not for consensus or action. The participants were expected to share their own stories, but not to challenge the assumptions of others or to discuss the pros or cons of having such an opinion. The committee and participants seemed excited just to have the opportunity to present their viewpoints in a safe space without having to defend or publicly reassess their perspectives. The committee also felt that assuring an opportunity for each person to speak would be a more readily achieved task for group facilitators, than moderating a respectful free exchange among strangers with contending beliefs and issue perspectives. As the group gained experience with the dialogue process, the structure for eliciting each participant's personal story relaxed somewhat. The participants accepted the guidelines and found that a less structured exchange still allowed each participant to contribute, but also allowed more exchange and mutual insight. While facilitators allowed a bit freer exchange, they encouraged each participant to speak from their own experience.

In the second year, a well-known humanist presenter began the evening program, and the dialogue was more of a response to the presentation and a connection to each person's own experience. Here the participants were asked to be somewhat more reflective about their own assumptions with regards to the issues of judgment, guilt, and forgiveness. The third year people were more comfortable with the topic which was not controversial, so more consensus arose. Speakers of similar perspectives were invited, and a looser dialogue process allowed majority views to shape themes. Also one of the dialogue questions asked the participants to relate the topic to the larger social picture, where this had not been proposed before. In the fourth year, the topic was connected directly with a developing task force sponsored by MUM and the planners came with a specific agenda. In the forums, the speakers also held a distinct political perspective, and the audience was asked to consider larger social issues which could lead to social action. Elements of direct personal experience and diverse perspectives diminished in importance.

THEME 3: WHO PARTICIPATES--SHIFTS IN THE AUDIENCE COMPOSITION

As the dialogue forums have evolved, the participants have also changed. Originally, the core audience consisted of church members and others who supported MUM's activities in the past. This group was primarily white, middle-class, Euro-Americans between the ages of forty and seventy. The second year, many participants from the same group returned as well as community members who were drawn in by the well-known speakers. The third year, with its focus on daily issues of work and family, many of the retired participants did not return because they did not connect with the topic. The desired expansion into the community also did not occur and the audience shrank to about forty-five participants. In the fourth year, with the topic related to prisons and social justice, many people who work in the corrections system or in social service agencies are participating. Many of the original group of participants from year one no longer attend and have been replaced by a different group of people. This group is much more passionate about the topic and is deeply concerned about the current system. They want to learn more about the system to be able to act to change it. This group is much more diverse ethnically, racially, and socio-economically; however their political perspectives lean more to the left than previous groups.

THEME 4: WHAT DISCUSSED--SHIFT IN EXPERIENTIAL CONNECTION TO THE TOPICS

The series of dialogue forums began with individual experiences as a key component. Relating the topic of the forum to personal experience and becoming aware of multiple perspectives was the impetus for establishing these forums. Yet as the topics grew to address larger social issues, the personal experiences that each participant brings may not be directly connected with the topic. In this fourth year, the audience reflects both groups of people, those who are directly involved with the criminal justice system and those who are interested but may not have specific experiences. Everyone is connected to larger social issues through the media and social discourse; however, the abstract experience of a system or an event is often very different than a personal experience. One way that the planning committee has address this lack of experience is to hold a simulation of being a recently released offender in the first month of parole. The simulation provides some understanding of the issues and challenges facing an ex-offender after serving a sentence.

THEME 5: WHY DISCUSSED--SHIFT FROM DIALOGUE TO ACTION

Over time the perspective on action within the series has shifted from dialogue without action to dialogue prompting action. In the first year, the early voices for action were deterred by focus on diverse dialogue. In the first two years, participants were not enjoined to agree on joint action, nor called to take individual action. Planners believed an emphasis on action would discourage diversity among participants. However, with a new MUM staff this focus changed. They felt than an action focus was valuable and was closer to the organization's mission. Therefore in year four, the topic was attached to an established task force with explicit social analysis-action focus. As a consequence the forums were less diverse politically. The dialogue took on a different function, to raise consciousness, inspire emotion, and lead to action. The dialogue no longer emphasized building bridges across different perspectives.

IMPLICATIONS FOR ADULT EDUCATION AND SOCIAL ACTION

Many of the shifts described above relate to the tension between the two approaches for dialogue (dialogue for awareness and understanding and dialogue for action) and the groups that we wish to serve through the dialogue process (marginal voices or collective voices). These tensions are represented in Table 1.

Table 1

Tensions of the Dialogue Process

	Marginal Voices	Collective Voices
Dialogue for Awareness	(A) Empowerment and Understanding	(B) Broader Consciousness (potential for individual action)
Dialogue for Action	(C) Social Action	(D) Collective Action

The model that we sought in Year 1 rested in Quadrant B seeking a broader consciousness and awareness of multiple perspectives, but as the dialogue process evolved the model became that of Quadrant C in Year 4 serving people at the margins and moving toward social action. Both of these models for dialogue recognize that it is a process for considering participants opinions and experiences and learning from the connections with others; however the participants and outcomes for both models vary widely.

Bohm (1990) describes the process of dialogue in Quadrant B as the "stream of meaning flowing among and through us and between us" (p. 1). He suggests that "dialogues are not meant to seek agreement, they are meant to develop a broader perspective and deeper understanding of complex issues. Actions may arise from dialogue, but they are not the primary purpose for engaging in dialogue" (p. 12).

Freire (1985) and Shor (1992) present the opposite perspective of dialogue (Quadrant C). People can come together through dialogue to "reflect on their reality as they make and remake it. Through dialogue, reflecting together on when we know and don't know, we can then act critically to transform reality" (Shor, 1992, p. 86). Dialogue provides "the threads of communication that bind people together and prepare them for reflective action" (p. 87).

The shift in dialogue and action perspective we experienced was due in large part to the coordinating organization returning to its recognized mission of promoting action for social change by moving from one model and audience to another. In coordinating this shift we would ask how do the purposes of the two models complement or conflict with each other? What kinds of organizations can effectively sustain one or the other of the two models? Can one organization orchestrate an effort linking the two models?

REFERENCES

Bohm, D. (1990). *On diialogue*. Ojai, CA: David Bohm Seminars.

Freire, P. (1985). *The politics of education*. South Hadley, MA: Bergin & Garvey Publishers.

Shor, I. (1992). *Empowering education: Critical teaching for social change*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Michelle Glowacki-Dudka, Ph.D. 2369 Effingham Way, Sun Prairie, WI 53590 sdudka@students.wisc.edu

Boyd Rossing, Ed.D. School of Human Ecology, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1300 Linden Dr., Madison, WI 53706 brossing@facstaff.wisc.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000

SELECTING COMMUNICATIONS TECHNOLOGY FOR CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAM DELIVERY

Peter J. Graybash, Jr.

ABSTRACT

With the convergence of major shifts in both economy and society, the demand and availability of competency development for professional employees in American corporations are increasing. Communications technologies now allow unprecedented frequency and intensity of linkages between providers of professional development to organizational consumers of education and training. As development programs become more available to industry, via communications technologies, to on-site business and industry settings, a multitude of decisions must be made concerning not only equipment and technology issues, but also "human elements" relating to the circumstances of teaching and learning and participation by organizational personnel. This suggests the important need to inventory, classify, and analyze the salient factors in decision-making that dictate or influence individual and organizational selection, acceptance and accommodation of communications technologies in the contexts of continuing professional education in industry.

The principal objective of this project is to identify the human elements to be addressed by high-tech industries as they decide to provide education and training responses relevant to industry-specific competencies. Information will be collected via a three-phase Delphi study of key decision-makers in a purposive sample of 23 leading high-tech industries. The first phase of the study involved open-ended questions directed at business-based managers in the area of communications technologies applications. The questions sought to define which communications technologies are perceived to be the best match for delivery of competencies, the concerns, the reservations, and the challenges in the recent past, now, and foreseen. They were asked to consider all factors: human, economic, environmental, etc. in addition to engineering considerations. The second or follow-on phase was conducted by telephone. It elicited responses ranked in order of importance. The third and final phase summarized and discussed the implications of the findings, and distributed them for comment requesting reactions to how earlier responses compared to the total.

Human factors are significant decision-making considerations in the selection process, and their importance is often denied or ignored. If this study helps understand the impact of human factors on the selection process, the quality of those decisions will be improved.

INTRODUCTION

For many, the Information Age arrived before we realized it, with the 1990s witnessing unparalleled growth and development of information technology. This has changed the world around us--not only how we view it, but also how we interact and cope with it. Staying current in this rapidly evolving world is a considerable challenge for those seeking to enhance their value as employees, and expand their horizons as individuals. Communications technology has had a dual effect on us--driving the need for continuing education and expanding our opportunities for obtaining it. Distance Education, for example, has been re-defined to describe the teaching-learning relationship in which participants interact through advanced communication technology.

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

Career competition with growing numbers of increasingly sophisticated fellow experts is on the minds and tongues of those in virtually every profession. Just as our appetite for continued career education grows, the diversity and sophistication of ways to deliver that education continues to expand. Therefore, it becomes complex, expensive, and difficult to pick from. We are not sure which of these delivery systems is the most effective. There are ways to measure effectiveness from an engineering standpoint, but a large portion of the choice is behaviorally oriented.

PROFESSION AWAKENS TO THE NEED

Ideally, continuing professional education (CPE) enables practitioners to keep abreast of new knowledge, maintain and enhance their competence, progress from beginning to mature practitioners, advance their careers through promotion and other job changes, and even move into different fields (Queeney, 1996). CPE is especially critical in the engineering profession, where knowledge has a generally accepted five-year half-life. That is, half of what a new graduate has learned is obsolete within five years. Engineers become obsolete, how do we get that overcome? The need for career-long continuing engineering education was formally recognized by individual engineers, industry experts, academicians and professional societies when a panel of the National Research Council recommended that the National Science Foundation (NSF) establish learning objectives for career-long engineering education.

In 1992 the NSF funded several engineering educational institutions to define the learning objectives, and to test and verify whether people learn more effectively in self-paced or collaborative learning environments. The result was the National Engineering Education Delivery System (NEEDS). Through NEEDS the NSF demonstrated that it recognized the value of rapid response to specific business-related problems. Equally important, there was also a clear recognition that adults learn in different ways, with different attitudes and directions, celebrating self-identity and the development of full potentialities. Knowles (1980) earlier had refined the art and science of teaching adults, coined the term *andragogy* and defined it as a lifelong process of continuing inquiry.

The development of continuing professional education is a point in the evolution of the concept of andragogy that Knowles (1980) described. The primary purpose is the same. CPE continues to help adult individuals satisfy their life needs and achieve their life goals (Knowles, 1980). Given the need for adult education, the question arises as just what is the most effective way to teach them. In recent years, research has shown many attempts to use the latest communications technology. There is continued high use of teleconferencing formats and multiple conferencing technologies, along with high enthusiasm for its use. However, preliminary research indicates that new systems have generally failed to be studied from the context of communications technology, while other research confirms industry managers' dissatisfaction with the current status of continuing education programs. From an instructional design perspective, what is the most effective mode of delivery? This raises the interesting question. In the next section, we'll consider one of the most popular areas in which technology has been growing fastest. Distance Education is being used by companies that do not want to release employees for long periods of time, don't want them away from the job, and don't want to spend money on unnecessary travel.

LEARNING FROM A DISTANCE

Distance education is a field in which the use of technology has been most prevalent and rapidly growing. Interest in telecommunicated distance education has been growing so rapidly that it is impossible to accurately document the many projects presently underway or being considered. Distance learning projects using communication technologies such as cable television, fiber optics, satellites, and microcomputer networking have opened multiple opportunities to coordinate schedules and share resources, thereby expanding curricular offerings and educational opportunities. A major factor in the growing interest in distance education is the ability to conduct live, real-time interaction between teachers and students.

Technology is often equated with "goodness" and almost always is assumed to be an improvement. But we don't know a lot about how continuing professional educators go about making their technology selection decisions, or how they integrate individual human elements with organizational factors in the decision-making process.

When business organizations consider certain communication technologies, they focus largely on technical issues. They rarely, or only marginally, consider the non-technical or human elements ultimately influencing levels of acceptance and effectiveness of the chosen technologies on the teachers or their participants. Is the media selected on the basis of defined learning needs? Is the delivery system selected because it is more glamorous or more expensive? What are the criteria for selection? Furthermore, which human elements affect technology choices, and Why?
Consider, for example, the gap between educational needs and the education actually provided. The gap is wide, and even though much of it is a result of the technological age, communication technology and distance education may very well be the best means of bridging that gap.

USING TECHNOLOGY TO TEACH TECHNOLOGY

Communication technology today provides the networking approach that enables technical professionals and managers to share educational resources on a global scale. Starting in the mid-1960s, instructional television (ITV) in the United States has grown steadily so that, today, it has become the primary way engineers and technical managers continue their education while at work. Nowhere has this been more evident than in the National Technological University (NTU).

A 1992 study reported that NTU provided 78 percent of all university instruction delivered by satellite in North America, and a similar customer-driven initiative delivers non-credit specific development programs to more than 100,000 enrollees each year. Clearly, innovative use of the communication media is upon us with a structure and technology of what has been termed "a virtual university" (Baldwin, 1997).

Regional ITV systems operated by individual universities continue to grow, and these networks since 1985 have been simultaneously interconnected nationally by satellite via NTU.
The National Technological University is a cooperative effort of 46 major engineering and management colleges linked by satellite and compressed digital-video technology to provide 25,000 hours of instruction to 115,000 participants annually. The regional interactive television systems operated by the individual universities are simultaneously interconnected through NTU. All of its programs focus strongly on learner needs, and it is an accredited and respected university.

The opportunities for more learners and the promise of improved quality of education for everyone is exciting. But excitement about the opportunity to use new media can be a distraction from choosing the most suitable alternatives.

CHOOSING FROM THE MENU

Hard data about how CPEEs choose communication approaches is missing from today's research. The first stage is to identify how they make decisions and identify common elements.

Most research follows three basic models. First is the Rational Model, selecting from among thoroughly analyzed alternatives. All choices, individual and organizational, benefit the entire organization and reflect criteria developed early in the process. This model places maximum emphasis on logical thinking. The Bounded Rationality Model, which tends to be less idealistic and accommodates the limitations of day-to-day decision-making, is a second approach. It reflects the tendency toward limited searches for alternatives, situations of inadequate information or control, and selection of the less than best solution ("satisficing"). Finally, the Political Model is evident when the situation is dominated by bias, distribution of power and self-serving interests. Deception is common, with distorted data used to support predetermined preferences that seldom change.

Each of these models lacks usefulness for studying human elements in CPE decision-making, because they do not reflect the complexity of the business environment. Decisions, whether by groups or individuals, are either routine and structured, or novel and unstructured. In business, routine decisions are dealt with using policies, rules and procedures. Unstructured decisions are more dynamic and complex and do not fit a particular pattern. Ventures into new processes, products, or markets are unique experiences, and are not dealt with in a routine manner. Relatively little is known about decision-making in this context, even though it revolves around complex issues requiring problem solving, judgment, intuition and creativity.

THE STRUCTURE OF UNSTRUCTURED DECISIONS

The structured model of the unstructured decision, developed by Mintzberg and his students, is more realistic (Mintzberg, Raisinghani, & Theoret, 1976). Empirical evidence was collected for more than five years by more than 50 teams of management graduate students. From this, Mintzberg developed a general model of unstructured decision-making, a flow chart of seven steps within three phases and operating in an environment of three supporting routines and six sets of dynamic elements. Using this complex model, he categorized seven types of paths for all unstructured decisions. The model has withstood scrutiny and review.

In this view, selecting an alternative is not a matter of choosing the one or best solution, it is a complete process of screening, evaluation and choice. Selecting is an integral part of evaluating and choosing, has been defined as "crude, at best" in the literature, and is loaded with soft human elements (particularly during bargaining, design and development).

Mintzberg et al. (1976) concluded that "selection routines" are mere trimmings in the overall process. Ultimately, "decision support routines," dominated by human issues, have the strongest impacts. Furthermore, the most dynamic factors are human elements, active in the total process and not in just any single element.

Behavioral influences such as individual values, personalities, propensity for risk, potential for disagreement and ethical intensity all apply. So the question ultimately is: How do CPEEs deal with human elements when selecting technology to teach technology?

THE INQUIRY

Data to answer this question will be collected through a written survey of key decision-makers in a purposive sample of 23 leading high-technology Fortune 500 companies. The decision-makers to be studied are CPEEs and officers at Fortune-500 companies serving on the National Technological University (NTU) Advisory Committee, all of whom are involved in planning and programming corporate engineering development programs. Baldwin (1997) describes NTU as a virtual university, an accredited cooperative effort of 46 major engineering and management colleges linked by satellite and using compressed digital-video technology to provide 25,000 hours of instruction to 115,000 engineering and scientific participants annually.

The questionnaire will be targeted to business-based managers and leaders such as the vice-president of human resources, director of human resource development, director of organizational development, manager of professional and management development and personnel manager. The survey will encompass human, economic and environmental elements in addition to engineering and professional considerations. Telephone and personal interviews will follow for in-depth exploration and ranking of elements in order of importance. Further, focus group interviews, biographical data/reflection questionnaires and personal or telephone interviews will provide in-depth detail-rich data based on individual perspectives and experiences.

A select focus group of three or four individuals will identify relevant elements for the survey questionnaire. Participants will be asked about the process for choosing technology. Potential questions include: "How is the media selected? On the basis of defined learning needs? Instructional needs? Professional or technical expertise? Available budget? Technological glamour? What are the criteria for selection?"

The survey will concern communication technologies, with questions to define which technologies are perceived to be the best or delivering externally provided competency education. Questions also will cover concerns, reservations and challenges currently known and foreseen. Reference will be made to a leadership model that focuses on the role played by leaders in selection decisions.

Telephone interviews will follow to elicit responses ranked in order of importance. Interviewees will be asked to react to survey responses and to indicate the extent of agreement with mean agreement scores. Finally, results will be compiled, analyzed and summarized into a discussion of the findings' implications, which will then be distributed for comment to all participating organizations. In keeping with the principles of Delphi study analysis, the final summative responses of the respondents will be integrated to close the loop and be included as an addendum for future use.

CONCLUSION

Knowledge emerging from the study should include insight into:

- Opportunities for change and the forces driving change;
- The effect of shared vision and outsiders on the decision making;
- The role of human resource professionals;
- The nature of resistance;
- The influence of centralization and decentralization;
- How processes are redesigned; and
- The impact of personal stresses, costs, relationships and hidden agendas.

As higher education goes beyond its traditional boundaries to create programs for lifelong learning, we must become more aware of external influences for a more holistic approach to program planning. Defining the decision-making profile of corporations and then developing a strategy to address that profile will go a long way to helping make these kinds of programs be the most meaningful they can be.

REFERENCES

Baldwin, L. V. (1997, July). *The National Technological University: A pioneering "virtual university."* Lecture presented at the Tokyo Institute of Technology, Tokyo, Japan.

Knowles, M. (1980). *The modern practice of adult education: From pedagogy to andragogy* (Rev. ed.). New York: Cambridge Books.

Mintzberg, H., Raisinghani, D., & Theoret, A. (1976). The structure of "unstructured" decisions. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 21,* 266-275.

Queeney, D. S. (1996). Continuing professional education. In R. L. Craig (Ed.), *The ASTD training and development handbook* (4th ed., pp. 698 - 724). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Peter J. Graybash, Jr., 4 Cambridge Drive, Hershey, PA 17033-2100 pjg2@email.psu.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

THE NEW MILLENNIUM: PROPER TIMING FOR THE INCLUSION OF AFRICAN AMERICANS' CONTRIBUTIONS TO ADULT EDUCATION

Jacquilyn B. Griffin

ABSTRACT

It has been my experience that current texts used in the field of Adult and Community Education (ACE) do not adequately include the contributions African Americans have made to the field of adult education. It is not solely because the contributions to adult education made by 'Coloreds', 'Negroes', 'Blacks' or whatever the preferred name of the day is for non-whites of African descent, whose ancestors were descendants of slaves, kings and queens, are not noteworthy. Nor is it solely because these contributions were made by practitioners, rather than researchers. I feel that it is due to the fact that the field of adult education has and continues to be dominated by the majority race--the whites. With this domination, two planes or playing fields have been established; the fields are uneven because of prevailing racism and African Americans have not received the proper recognition for their contributions to the field. The time has come and gone for African American adult educators to be given their proper recognition and receive the appropriate accolades, which are and have been awarded to other adult education contributors.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this literature review was to research and provide literature, which demonstrates how the contributions of African Americans, during the first half of the twentieth century, helped shape the field of adult education. This post civil war and pre-civil rights period was one of hard-earned, but determined, self-empowerment for African Americans. My interest and curiosity deepened and grew when a relative abundance of information was found regarding the early and significant contributions African Americans have made to adult education. When this 'wealth' of information was uncovered, feelings of dismay set in, because so many contributions of African Americans adult educators have been and continue to be overlooked and/or mentioned in a very cursory manner in the texts currently used in the field. It is my hope that the impact of this review would result in a renewed interest and passion for learning for practitioners and academicians, while acquiring and facilitating additional knowledge to be shared with the learners.

The field of adult education is very broad and there are many definitions which are used during the course of study. Rowden (1996) defines adult education as being concerned with the total human and his/her insight into and understanding of his/her world. Adult education is a form of social intervention and very often begins as an effort to solve a problem (Kelman & Warwick, as cited in Merriam & Cafferalla, 1991). Additionally, adult education is the acquisition and application of knowledge for one's growth and development. This knowledge is facilitated for the growth and development of the adult learners, as well as for the adult educator or facilitator.

The thrust of this presentation is to provide recognition to four infrequently mentioned African American adult educators: Thomas M. Campbell, Mary McLeod Bethune, Septima Poinsette Clark, and Alain Leroy Locke. Each of these persons, in his/her unique way, provided systematic methods and tools to educate and promote learning for members of their race.

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

FOUR AFRICAN AMERICAN ADULT EDUCATORS AND THEIR CONTRIBUTIONS

THOMAS M. CAMPBELL

Thomas M. Campbell, a protégée of Booker T. Washington, continued the concept of movable schools, which was developed by Washington and George Washington Carver. In 1937, Campbell became the first Black Farm Demonstration Agent. He also wrote a book entitled *Movable Schools Goes to the Negro Farmer*. Morton (1991) describes the movable schools as a wagon loaded with farm implements and supplies where educators visited communities to demonstrate improved methods of farming and eventually included a nurse and home economist. I consider Thomas Campbell to be a true practitioner of adult education because he taught Blacks how to make their crops more abundant; he taught his students about the benefits of properly fertilizing the crops and the soil; he taught his students how to control insects to the crops; and he demonstrated proper ways to plan and perform effective crop rotation. During this period, farming was the main source of livelihood for Blacks. Campbell brought his scientific knowledge to his people...his Black adult learners. His teachings were early demonstrations of what today's adult educators refer to as interactive or participatory learning. He showed his learners how to put their actions into practice by actually doing the respective farming tasks. Mr. Campbell, though not a theorist, was truly a practitioner in the field of adult education. He was a facilitator for the acquisition of knowledge about farming. He provided his adult learners with the tools to make them more self-sufficient, independent, agents of growth and development. He achieved his teaching objectives by implementing self-directed and participatory learning techniques as he taught his students how to farm properly. Mr. Campbell was a true adult educator.

MARY MCLEOD BETHUNE

Mary McLeod Bethune, whose life spanned an 80 year period from 1875 to 1955, was one of the most powerful African Americans in the United States for more than a quarter of a century. "She earned national prominence as an organizer, administrator, educator, fund-raiser, spokesperson, orator, and activist" (Smith, 1999, p.1). She was also ad hoc assistant to four US Presidents (Coolidge, Hoover, Roosevelt and Truman) in the areas of child welfare, education, and home ownership. She was a leader in the Black world and her affiliation with the architects of the New Deal reform program led to her service as an advisor on minority affairs under the Roosevelt administration. She played a key role in ensuring that the New Deal was cognizant of the needs of the Black community.

She was the 15th of 17 children of former slaves. Her thirst and quest for knowledge began at an early age. Mary inspired and impressed Emma Wilson, her Black grade school teacher, who recommended her for scholarships to Scotia Seminary in Concord, NC and Dwight Moody's Institute for Home and Foreign Missions in Chicago, IL. Upon the completion of her college education, she opened an elementary school for young girls in Daytona Beach, FL in 1904. In 1929, this school officially became Bethune-Cookman College and in 1943, it produced its first baccalaureate graduates in education. Since 1943, Bethune-Cookman College has had over 9500 graduates in over 26 major areas of study. She was also a public leader.

> She led a drive to register Black voters in Daytona Beach. . . . She organized clubs of black [sic] women throughout the Southeast to combat school segregation and the lack of health facilities among black children, . . . [and she] became the eighth president of the National Association of Colored Women's clubs (NACW). (Flemming, 1999, p.2)

Bethune received many honorary degrees. She was an officer of such organizations as the Urban League, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, and the National Council of Negro Women, which she founded in 1935.

In addition to her many accomplishments as an organizer, Dr. Bethune's attention and devotion to education was still her first love. "In 1934, Bethune won a long-sought grant of $55,000 from the General Education Board that secured the future of her school" (Smith, 1999, p.1). She was a lobbyist for the education of her people. Her abilities to effectively communicate and facilitate adult education principles--lifelong learning techniques--were one of the hallmarks of her great accomplishments. She spoke with persons from all walks of life and varying economic strata--from the poor working class to the leaders of nations. This epitomized her strength as an adult educator. She spoke and encouraged people to listen and take action, which would be of benefit to themselves and their fellowman. "Two axioms of Bethune's philosophy, 'not for myself, but for others,' and 'I feel that as I give I get'" (Flemming, 1999, p. 3) exemplified how she took nothing for chance. She was vigilant her in efforts to insure that her family members were educated and economically secure. Dr. Bethune's efforts for improved racial relations and minority education brought her the Spingarn Medal in 1935 (Smith, 1999).

Although, Dr. Bethune was not a theorist in the field of adult education, she was truly a practitioner. She employed the principles of situated cognition, actual classroom instruction, curriculum development, interactive learning, and perspective transformation. She constantly evaluated her current perception of life, obtained additional resources for new information, which enabled her to take action(s) and make decision(s) that would aid in the improvement of the status of Blacks. Mary McLeod Bethune not only implemented perspective transformation and situated cognition in her facilitation of learning, she was also served as a positive role model for the Black community--an essential quality and characteristic for an adult educator

SEPTIMA POINSETTE CLARK

Septima Poinsette Clark was teacher, who became active in the civil rights activities shortly after the end of World War I. Her life spanned a period of 89 years from 1898 to 1987. She was the daughter of a former slave; she earned her Bachelor's degree from Benedict College in Columbia, SC and her Masters' degree from Hampton Institute. She was the daughter of a former slave and became a legendary educator and humanitarian. She helped in a campaign to equalize teachers' salaries in Columbia, SC; she developed a program to teach Blacks to read and write well enough to pass voters literacy tests. Easter (1996) quotes Clark as saying, "My purpose, of course, was not only to teach them how to read and write but to teach them at the same time things they would have to know in order to start on their way to becoming first class citizens" (p.118). Ms. Clark made this statement in reference to a workbook, *My Citizenship Booklet*, which she devised that "discussed such subjects as the South Carolina election laws, particularly those setting forth the requirements for registering and voting, the laws concerning social security, laws relating to taxes, . . . [and] laws relating to the duties of the school board" (Easter, 1996, p. 118).

Because of her outgoing nature and zeal for political and social equality, Clark was asked joined the staff of the Highlander School, which was founded by Myles Horton. Easter (1996) points out that "she later became their director of education, responsible for all residential workshops for civil rights and community leaders, both black and white" (p .115). "These workshops led to the establishment of the Johns Island, Carolina, Citizenship Schools which taught the people of the island reading, writing and citizenship, so they could pass the test required to resister to vote. The far-reaching goal of these schools was the democratic empowerment of the people" (Easter, 1996, p. 110). Again, Septima Clark was not a theorist in the field of adult education, but she was indeed a practitioner, who had a view of her world and she sought additional information to gain new perspectives, upon which she made decisions that improved the plight of her people. Septima Clark implemented perspective transformation--the hallmark of adult learning. Ms. Clark was an adult educator who made a difference for her people.

ALAIN LEROY LOCKE

Alain Leroy Locke was born in 1886 to well-educated parents, who held professional positions within the Philadelphia, PA, community where they lived. He was a writer and teacher who promoted the contributions of other Black artists, musicians, and writers. He was the architect of the Negro Movement and the Harlem Renaissance. He encouraged Blacks to explore their heritage and expand their cultural accomplishments. He graduated from the Philadelphia School of Pedagogy in 1904, entered Harvard in the same year and graduated magna cum laude. He received his Ph.D. in philosophy in 1918 from Harvard. In 1907 Alain Locke became the first African American Rhodes Scholar. He developed the curriculum for the school of philosophy at

Howard University, where he taught for 40 years. His anthology, *The New Negro*, which he wrote in 1925, inspired several generations of Black artistic expression, which include such playwrights as Langston Hughes and Zora Neale Hurston. *The New Negro* projected a prouder image of the Negro in America, which enabled Blacks to believe that they could use literature and art to foster a dialogue with "white" America and demonstrate that they were culturally savvy and mature. He was a leading African American figure in the adult education movement in the 1930's under the sponsorship of the American Association for Adult Education and the Carnegie Foundation. Dr. Locke served as President of the AAE from 1946 to 1947. During his lifetime, he wrote and/or edited 12 books and hundreds of essays. In his lectures, he emphasized that the development of a positive race consciousness was key to the development of the Negro; he instilled pride in the Negro. Dr. Locke's philosophical issues were primarily focused on (1) values and valuation (values, attitudes, and beliefs), (2) cultural pluralism, and (3) and race relations. On cultural pluralism, Locke's view can be summarized as: each culture has its own identity and is entitled to protect and promote it. (Anderson, 1999; The Howard University Libraries, 1998)

His philosophical issue on values is closely associated with the key components of perspective transformation, which is the hallmark of adult education. He posits valuation to be a part of the affective process of the world and significantly shapes cognition.

> Like Freire and Lindeman, Locke believed that adult educators should: (a) realize the importance of teaching people about their own history and cuture; (b) recognize and keep in mind the vital, concrete, and particular interest of adults; and (c) recognize adult education's role in social and mass education. He reminded adult educators that they have not progressed very far toward better social integration, or saner social understanding, or more healthy social participation throughout objective study of history and sociology and abstract political science. Nor have we promoted unity or tolerance by our educational policy of ignoring differences and stressing conformity. Indifference and even active intolerance have been the usual results of this procedure. (Gyant, 1996, pp. 76-77)

Perhaps more than any other person in his day, Alain Leroy Locke exposed all Americans to the cultural innovations of Black Americans and forever changed the view of contemporary Black culture. He implemented situated cognition. Dr. Locke was one of the most influential Black American thinkers of our time. He brought a message of intellect and self sufficiency to Black Americans. He was instrumental in promoting self actualization, pride and self confidence in Black Amercans. His lectures and sphere of influence espoused the importance of development and awareness of self, which are paramount to adult education and life long learning. Dr. Alain Leroy Locke was a brilliant African American and a prominent adult educator.

CORRELATION OF PRACTICES TO ADULT THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

Throughout this presentation, the terms perspective transformation, situated cognition, self directed learning and/or participatory learning have been used to justify and credentailize the contributions of Campbell, Bethune, Clark and Locke. As adult educators, it was presumed that the readers of this presentation would understand the terms; however, allow me to provide definitions. Perspective transformation, a term developed by Jack Mezirow, which I prefer to call insight for change, is one of the three strands of transformational learning. It is uniquely adult learning and is frequently referred to as the hallmark of adult learning.

Perspective transformation is the process of becoming critically aware of how and why our presuppositions have come to constrain the way we perceive, understand and feel about our world; of reformulating these assumptions to permit a more inclusive, discriminating, permeable and integrative perspective and of making decisions or otherwise acting upon these new understandings. (Merriam & Caffarella, 1991, p. 260)

This does not happen in a vacuum; some life changing situation occurs, whether good or bad, to make us reevaluate the ways in which we have been normally doing things. We set about acquiring new and/or additional information, which can provide a new insight or perspective. Based on that new information and further assessment of the situation (critical reflection), we take action and/or make a decision. Campbell, Bethune, Clark and Locke very definitely utilized perspective transformation as they improved the plight of the members of their race.

Situated cognition is learning, knowing and understanding are fundamentally structured by our interactions with one another and with the elements of the circumstances. Arthur Wilson refers to situated cognition as "learning and knowing are integrally and inherently situated in the everyday world of human activity. The promise of situated cognition lies in providing a more accurate understanding of how adults learn" (Wilson, 1993, p. 71). Thomas Campbell, Mary McLeod Bethune, Septima Clark and Alain Leroy Locke could not have effectively and consistently raised the self esteem and self confidence of their people had they not used this adult education principle.

As adult educators, we use the terms self-directed learning or participatory learning so frequently and interchangeably that we rarely take the time to define the term. However, the "term that has been used most consistently in describing learning on one's own is self-directed learning" (Merriam & Caffarella, 1991, p. 41). It is the form of study or acquisition of knowledge, in which the individual learner has prime responsibility for planning, executing, and evaluating his/her own learning experiences. In such a learning method or setting, the learner has the opportunity to immediately implement the techniques or principles that have been taught? It is true hands on application. The learner is able to see the results of his/her learning almost immediately. Again, Campbell, Between, Clark and Lock implemented this adult education technique in their interactions with the members of their race. Their use of participatory learning aided in instilling confidence, pride and perseverance; it helped make the Blacks survive and become contributing members of society.

The majority of the theories and principles relating to adult education were formulated and developed by the theorists after Campbell, Between, Clark and Lock made the contributions. However, these progressive-thinking humanitarians, who were actually innate adult educators, practiced the essential adult education principles and theories before they were even named or titled. They did what they saw and felt to be necessary to exist and live as contributing human beings in a society, which had treated them in an inferior manner. Incorporating these techniques, as they facilitated knowledge, was as their means for survival and perseverance.

Scipio A. J. Colin, III, one of the more frequently referenced African American adult educators of today, speaks out about the adult education graduate programs and their promise for the future for African American graduate students. She is also very concerned about the exclusion of African American educator's contributions to the field of adult education. She offers recommendations, which can serve as a starting point for additional efforts to overcome racism in adult education programs. She concludes by saying,

> Before we can confront the issue of societal racism, each member of the professorial must first confront the racism that is reflected in their perceptions of and attitudes toward people of color and determine how this racism is acted out in their recruitment and retention practices. (Colin, 1994, p. 59)

Guy also states:

> Adult education from the perspective of Africentrism is emerging as a new way of thinking about adult education. Theory, concepts and accepted principles change the context of Africentrism. It is important for adult educators to understand and incorporate Africentrism into their practice as a means to improve service to African American adult learners and to combat the effects of racism and cultural hegemony too often associated with mainstream education and practice. (Guy, 1996a, p. 7)

CONCLUSION

The African Americans, whom I cited in this presentation, did not label or name their theories or philosophies; they did not have this luxury, as pure theorists did and still do. There was too much work to be done to improve the plight of Blacks. First Blacks had to feel as though they were a part of humanity...their self respect, their self esteem, and their self confidence had to be restored.

With these life enriching qualities in place, Blacks would then become empowered; Blacks would then become educated; they would become economically viable; they would be able to vote and make choices and decisions...Blacks would begin to chart their own destinies. Thomas M. Campbell, Mary McLeod Bethune, Septima Poinsette Clark and Alain Leroy Locke provided Blacks of their day with the necessary tools to be life long learners. These African Americans were truly adult educators, both practitioners and researchers, whose contributions should be a vital part of the adult education curriculum. There is a still a lot that can be learned from their philosophies, behaviors, interactions with others, and their analysis of the elements of the respective circumstances which they faced.

> Education has traditionally been a highly valued affair among African Americans. The commitment to education has been supported by the idea that becoming educated can provide a way of overcoming bigotry and racism that daily confronts African Americans. Yet, even the best educated African American encounters prejudice because of his or her color. (Guy, 1996b, p. 89)

REFERENCES

Anderson, M. D. (1999, February 15). *Alain Locke: Midwife and mentor to the Harlem renaissance* [On-line]. Retrieved November 7, 1999, from the World Wide Web: http://www.worldafricannet.com/blackhistory/blackhistory6128.html

Colin, III, S. A. J. (1994). Adult and continuing education graduate programs: Prescription for the future. In E. Hayes & S. A. J. Colin, III (Eds.) *Confronting racism and sexism* (pp. 53-62). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. (New Directions in Adult and Continuing Education, No. 61)

Easter, O. V. (1996). Septima Poinsette Clark: Unsung heroine of the civil rights movement. In E. A. Peterson (Ed.), *Freedom road: Adult education of African Americans* (pp.109-122). Malabar, FL: Krieger.

Fleming, S. Y. (1999, August 15). The life of Dr. Mary McLeod Bethune [On-line]. Retrieved November 7, 1999, from the World Wide Web: http://www.bethune.cookman.edu/Welcome/Founder/founder.html

Guy, T. C. (1996a, October). *Africentrism and adult education: Outlines of an intellectual tradition with implications for adult education.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education Charlotte, NC. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 409 457)

Guy, T. C. (1996b). The American Association of Adult Education and the experiments in African American adult education. In E. A. Peterson (Ed.), *Freedom road: Adult education of African Americans* (pp. 89-108). Malabar, FL: Krieger.

Gyant, L. (1996). Alain Leroy Locke: More than an adult educator. In E. A. Peterson (Ed.), *Freedom road: Adult education of African Americans* (pp. 67-87). Malabar, FL: Krieger.

Howard University Libraries. (1998). Alain Leroy Locke bibliography [On-line]. Retrieved Nov. 7, 1999, from the World Wide Web: http://www.founders.howard.edu/ Locke.htm

Merriam, S. B., & Caffarella, R. S. (1991). *Learning in adulthood.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Morton, S. (1991, October). *Charting the course of lifelong learning for Blacks.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education, Montreal, QC. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 359 317)

Rowden, R. W. (1996). Current realities and future challenges. In R. W. Rowden (Ed.), *Workplace learning: Debating five critical questions of theory and practice* (pp. 3-10). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. (New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education, No. 72).

Smith, E. M. (1999). *Mary McLeod Bethune papers* [On-line]. Retrieved November 7, 1999, from the World Wide Web: http://www.lexis-nexis.com/cispubs/Catalog/re

Wilson, A. L. (1993). The promise of situated cognition. In S. B. Merriam (Ed.), *An update on adult learning theory* (pp. 71-79). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. (New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education, No. 57). .

Jacquilyn B. Griffin, M.A., Human Resources Consultant, 110 Yellowstone Drive, Latrobe, PA 15650. jacqui@westol.com

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

EPISTEMOLOGY AT WORK:
EXTENSION EDUCATORS AND THEIR WAYS OF KNOWING

Heidi Lee Haugen

ABSTRACT

This article reports the results of a study of how contemporary extension educators (a. k. a. agents) perceive the nature of knowledge and their relationship to knowledge generation; how they "know" and "learn" and how they use and evaluate information within their educator roles. Data indicate that some educators regard knowledge as information and their role as translating and disseminating information, while other educators understand knowledge as all of an individual's experiences, values and thoughts, and their role as creating and educing knowledge from themselves and others within learning partnerships.

INTRODUCTION

In the past 15 years, the U.S. Cooperative Extension System (CES) has undergone a considerable paradigmatic, organizational, and normative role shift (Patterson, 1998) from general discipline "information distributor" to specialized information provider and life decisions guide (White & Burnham, 1994). While recent writings (Peters, 1999) point out a history of contention regarding the fundamental mission of CES (economic, civic, community, and/or human development), most would agree that it is "essentially education . . . directed toward satisfying the needs of people" (Sanders & Maunder, 1966, p. 10). Which needs to address has been less clear, and, since its inception in 1914, Extension's educational efforts and the diversity of constituencies have expanded. In the mid-to-late 1980s, CES turned from a programmatic emphasis on subject matter to issues-based programming, which some (e.g., Price, 1990) view as essential to its success.

These paradigmatic shifts signal a significant reconceptualization in the role of the extension educator (a. k. a. agent). One proposed role is less "research [information] disseminator" and more "learning facilitator," "information broker" (Meszaros & Stanley, 1986), and "facilitator of access" who can choose from a variety of techniques and approaches for "just-in-time" learning (CES Strategic Planning Council, 1991; White & Burnham, 1994). Christoplos (1996) and others argue that, in keeping with an issues-based approach of CES, the appropriate role of the educator has evolved from "the sage on the stage to a guide on the side" (Gibson, as cited in White & Burnham, 1994, p. 5). Others (e.g., Patterson, 1991; Rasmussen, 1989) further contend that this role should be to "help people and communities identify their problems; help them to evaluate choices; and help people and communities gain access to resources that will solve the problems" (Rasmussen, 1989, p. 190)—a more community research and organizing role. Examining early workings on extension, Peters (1999) argues convincingly for educators to re-embrace the role of community leader and civic organizer within an extension system "devoted to awakening, organizing, and developing the civic spirit and capacities of ordinary people through engaging them in public work" (p. 10) and political affairs.

Less heard in this discussion are the voices of the educators, themselves, and how they engage these proposed "guide" and "organizer" roles. A strong indicator of how they understand and fulfill their educator role is how they think about the knowledge supporting the life decisions and actions of their constituents (a. k. a. clients, consumers, learners, and program participants) and how they perceive their own role in generating knowledge and evaluating knowledge claims as part of their

---

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

work. The results of the inquiry process described here focus on how contemporary Extension educators "know" and "learn" (generate their own knowledge) in their educator roles, how they perceive the nature of knowledge, and how they use and evaluate information (the knowledge claims of others) in their work during this period of extension's reinvention, restructuring, and reform.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The questions of how people understand knowledge claim generation and evaluation processes and how they see their role in those processes are essentially epistemological. There are many theories of personal epistemological development and several approaches to "ways of knowing" (e.g., Baxter Magolda, 1992; Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986; King & Kitchener, 1994). West (1996) neatly sums these up in a four-stage model of Absolute, Personal, Rule-Based, and Evaluative knowledge. While these categories/stages might in part explain educators' own ideas around their role in knowledge generation and use and thus their approach to the educator role, culture and context might also affect how educators perceive their role in knowledge generation. There is little in the literature that speaks specifically to the epistemological "stance" of extension; however, normative organizational processes can shed light on the epistemological underpinnings of certain models for extension. In one model of extension as an historically "expert system," "knowledge" is generated at the university via research, which is received and translated by extension educators and then disseminated to a "target population." This model would certainly fit with the Absolute and Rule-based stages; with the educator as translator of and conduit for the "accurate" and useful university research knowledge, this model seems to purposefully avoid any use of knowledge that is not generated by faculty experts and thus denigrate the "local" knowledge of community-based citizens and even educators, themselves. The proposed "guide" and "organizer" roles, however, seem to require a more Evaluative approach to knowing and a strong recognition of non-experts as generators of "accurate" and useful knowledge for themselves and others. Constructivist theory, (Guba, 1990) also recognizes varied perspectives as crucial for richer and more sophisticated knowledge construction, and it is this theory that guided this inquiry process.

INQUIRY METHODOLOGY

To learn from a variety of perspectives, the researcher chose a purposefully diverse sample of 25 NY educators with varying areas of programming focus; geographic locations; genders; ages, and levels of formal education and tenure within CCE. Face-to-face interviews elicited information from respondents regarding how they view their educator role; knowledge generation and flows within extension; judgment and use of information; learning and knowing sources; and approach to dealing with conflicting knowledge claims. The researcher summarized all interview data into "member check" documents (Guba & Lincoln, 1989), sent them to the respondents, and then followed up via telephone interview to further clarify responses and to elicit further data regarding knowledge and extension mission. The researcher derived themes from the data, reduced and displayed data according to those themes, then drew research conclusions (Miles & Huberman, 1994). For the sake of brevity, this article focuses on how educators described their learning and knowing, the nature of and their relationship to knowledge generation within the extension process, and their evaluation and use of information (i.e., the knowledge claims of others).

FINDINGS

RESPONDENTS

Of the 25 respondents in the sample, two worked in downstate metropolitan counties, five in upstate metropolitan counties, and 14 in rural counties, which is representative of NY county-based educators. Twelve respondents were male, and 13 were female. Thirteen respondents had Bachelors degrees, while 12 had Masters, Ph.D., and/or J.D. degrees. Thirteen educators ranged in age from 25 to 44 years, and 12 were between 45 and 61 years. Twelve respondents had worked within Extension for less than five years and 13 for more than five years. While many of the educators in this sample had responsibilities in more than one program area, six worked primary in Agriculture/Natural Resources; six, in Youth Development; six, in Family and Consumer Sciences; and seven, in Community Issues Programming.

CATEGORIES OF LEARNING AND KNOWING

Respondents cited 97 learning and knowing sources which were clustered into five categories according to the relationship of the individual to the source. The categories included:

- Reception: one-way collection and absorption of written and auditory data which entailed no inter-action with its source.
- Interaction: social dialog, including hearing other people's stories of experience while sharing one's own, particularly regarding "what works and what doesn't."
- Application/Experience: application or "hands-on" life and work experiences of teaching, role-playing, or active problem solving related to one's program area or responsibilities.
- Thought/Reflection: the "internal" processes of thinking about, reflecting on, synthesizing, and/or evaluating materials, program feedback, or teaching and/or life role experiences.
- Research: conducting a planned, systematic process of inquiry to generate one's own knowledge claims or to test the validity of the knowledge claims of others.

LEARNING/KNOWING GROUPS

Analysis of each educator's descriptions of their own knowing and learning yielded five major groups: Receivers, Interacters, Blenders, Thinkers, and Researchers. Two Receiver educators in this sample described learning and knowing primarily through one-way receiving or absorption of material or non-interactive presentations. Five Interacter educators described learning and knowing through either absorbtion or discussion of materials and techniques—usually with peers in extension or other community organizations. Seven Blender educators in this sample described learning and knowing via a combination of one-way, interaction, and applied techniques. Five Thinker educators learned through this blend, but they also spent much of their time thinking about and/or reflecting on their experiences, practice, and the information they had read and/or discussed. Six Researcher educators used the blend, and some of these used thought and reflection in their learning and knowing; what set them apart from the Blenders and Thinkers is their articulation of a detailed learning or research agenda for themselves and/or in partnership with others.

NATURE OF AND RELATIONSHIP TO KNOWLEDGE

The research data showed clear patterns around how educators in these knowing and learning groups viewed of the nature of knowledge within the Extension system and their relationship to its generation and use. Receivers and Interacters tended to equate knowledge with information and described their role in the extension process as the translator and disseminator of objective, quantifiable university or government "knowledge" to constituent groups. With one exception, Blenders also depicted knowledge as an information tool/resource, although to them constituents' knowledge played a more active part in extension: while educators conveyed programming "knowledge" (information or "facts") from university staff to constituents, they also transmitted the program needs and evaluation "knowledge" (opinions) of the constituents back to university staff.

Thinkers and Researchers differentiated knowledge and information to a greater extent than the others, and they also saw their own—and constituents'—relationship to knowledge generation very differently. Thinkers portrayed knowledge as continually-changing understandings, values, and skills acquired through a variety of experiences. To Thinkers, all extension stakeholders—including constituents—have important knowledge to share and to enhance research processes. Thinkers tried to help constituents gain understandings and skills not simply via information "lecture-dump" but through the application of information, reflection on experiences, and discussion. Researchers defined information as "facts," and knowledge as the never-ending accumulation, valuation, and categorization of information, experiences, and thoughts—and that part of all people that allows them to make sound decisions toward life goals. Using information, experiences, and discussion, educators share their own knowledge and also "coax" knowledge out of constituents to help them to make life decisions and to learn and solve problems together.

EVALUATING AND USING INFORMATION

The research data also revealed clear differences in how educators evaluated and used information. Receivers and Interacters described "good" information as "research-based" and judged the accuracy of information primarily by whether or not it came from either a university or government source. To them, all university research was unbiased and neutral. When unsure of the accuracy of a particular knowledge claim, they would usually ask a university source for verification. To Blenders, good information had to come from a trusted source, but it also had to be useful, applicable, relevant, and low-cost. The most trusted and "accurate" sources were usually land grant faculty or the Blender's own direct experience applying information. Receivers, Interacters, and Blenders all described feeling extremely uncomfortable using any commercial information—even if potentially useful—because of a possible bias.

Thinkers judged the information less by its source and more by how understandable it was, how internally and externally consistent it seemed, and whether or not it was appropriate to certain settings and met locally-perceived needs. Instead of "sorting sources" to judge the accuracy of knowledge claims, Thinkers described the notion of accuracy as problematic and claims to "truth" as relative across different contexts, thought and value frameworks, and inquiry methodologies. Thinkers verified knowledge claims using several sources and often described themselves as a lens for synthesizing and evaluating information from many perspectives. They hunted for the stated and unstated agendas of all individuals and groups—including university faculty, and themselves. Thinkers seemed much more comfortable using information from a variety of organizations. Instead of avoiding a piece of information from a "biased source," they would cut out the parts that resonate as true and appropriate for their program, or they would use the whole piece as a tool for showing constituents how to assess the slant or agenda of an organization.

Good information "resonated" with Researchers and was "interesting"; it could have an agenda, as long as it was not hidden. Like Thinkers, Researchers spoke to the notion of accuracy being problematic—more a "judgment call" or "someone's best guess" than "Truth." Researchers recognized not only the agendas of individuals and organizations but also their folly (faulty methods). To them, research-based information was not inevitably accurate; even these "facts" could reflect faculty and funding biases and must be judged like information from other sources. Researchers judged accuracy of information by its consistency with what else they have read, heard about, and experienced, as well as how that information fit with their own values. They were more apt to trust information from sources that had a stake in its successful application. Always using "a critical eye," they would build up networks of particular, trustworthy sources over time. They also recognized and even delighted in the ever-changing nature of "what is known."

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results of this inquiry point to a clear difference in how educators value their own opinions, experiences, and values—their own "personal authority"—within their extension role. Receivers and Interacters tended to rely on outside authorities for knowledge claim generation and verification. While trusting their own experiences to a slightly greater extent, Blenders also sought out the "neutral," authoritative voice of the land grant university system or government agencies generation and verification of knowledge claims. Thinkers and Researchers, on the other hand, seemed to identify themselves as their own ultimate authority for generating and verifying knowledge claims. Educators in the latter groups also appreciated constituents' knowledge and saw their role more as learning partner and guide. Individual demographics do not appear to explain these differences, however, culture and opportunities might do so in part. In many cases, Thinkers and Researchers recognized and seized opportunities for reflection and research more than other educators, and they reveled in the "freedom" they had to define their learning and work tasks as they saw fit. Receivers and Reflectors tended to articulate both a lack of support (financial, emotional, and otherwise) for their learning—particularly from their superiors—and a sense that their learning efforts did not translate into learning for constituents.

These outcomes point to critical needs for supporting all educators in their learning pursuits and for helping some of them to recognize the importance of learning via reflection and engagement in research projects on their own or with others. Generating knowledge in these ways helps educators enhance their research skills, critical thinking skills, confidence in generating and evaluating knowledge claims, and appreciation for the knowledge of all people. The epistemological assumptions embedded within the critical theories of participatory action research (Selener, 1997) and popular education (Horton & Freire, 1990) clearly fit within this approach By actively creating learning partnerships, educators can move from translators and disseminators to "guides" and "organizers," and help to constituents and university staff form a stronger civic leadership and engaged university.

REFERENCES

Baxter Magolda, M. B. (1992). *Knowing and reasoning in college: Gender-related patterns in students' intellectual development.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Belenky, M. F., Clinchy, B. M., Goldberger, N. R., & Tarule, J. M. (1986). *Women's ways of knowing.* New York: Basic Books.

Christoplos, I. (1996). Poverty, pluralism and extension practice. *International Institute for Environment and Development, 64*, 3-19.

Cooperative Extension System Strategic Planning Council. (1991). *Patterns of change.* Washington, DC: Author.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1989). *Fourth generation evaluation.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Guba, E. G. (1990). The alternative paradigm dialog. In E. G. Guba (Ed.), *The paradigm dialog* (pp. 17-27). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Horton, M., & Freire, P. (1990). *We make the road by walking.* Philadelphia: Temple University Press.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

King, P. M., & Kitchener, K. S. (1994). *Developing reflective judgment.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Meszaros, P. S., & Stanley, S. (1986). Home economists as information brokers. *Journal of Home Economics, 78*(1), 11-15.

Patterson, Jr., T. F. (1991). Tomorrow's extension educator—learner, communicator, systemicist [On-line]. *Journal of Extension, 29*(1). Available: http://www.joe.org/joe/1991spring/fut1.html

Patterson, T. F., Jr. (1998). Commentary II: A new paradigm for extension administration [On-line]. *Journal of Extension, 36*(1). Available: [illegible]p://www.joe.org/joe/1998february/comm1.html

Peters, S. (1999, April). Mission drift or renewal? Recovering an historical grounding for assessing Cooperative Extension's civic work. *Inquiry in Action, 22*, pp. 8-12.

Price, D. W. (1990). Cooperative Extension as community education developer. In M. W. Galbraith (Ed.), *Education through community organizations* (pp. 79-87). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. (New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education, No. 47)

Rasmussen, W. D. (1989). *Taking the university to the people: Seventy-five years of cooperative extension.* Ames, IA: Iowa State University.

Sanders, H. C., & Maunder, A. H. (1966). Why an Extension Service today? In H. C. Sanders (Ed.), *The Cooperative Extension Service* (pp. 3-12). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Selener, D. (1997). *Participatory action research and social change.* Ithaca, NY: Cornell University, Participatory Action Research Network.

West, E. J. (1996). *College students' way of thinking about science.* Unpublished master's thesis, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY.

White, B. A., & Burnham, B. (1994). *The Cooperative Extension System: A facilitator of access for community-based education.* Washington, DC: Department of Education, National Institute on Post Secondary Education, Libraries, and Lifelong Learning (NIPELL).

Heidi L. Haugen, Extension Associate & Ph.D. Candidate, Cornell University. hlh2@cornell.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

CROSSING CULTURAL AND LINGUISTIC BORDERS: THE ADULT ESL EXPERIENCE OF PERSPECTIVE TRANSFORMATION.

Kathleen P. King

ABSTRACT

Perspective transformation offers one framework from which to examine the adult ESL learning experience. This framework highlights a process of critical reflection and self-examination that leads to personal development and change. Research among 208 adult ESL learners enrolled in ESL programs was conducted to examine the nature of their perspective transformation experiences. The analysis of the data revealed that adult ESL learners navigate through significant changes in their lives during their studies, particularly as it relates to their understanding of culture and language. Three major themes of perspective transformation were identified: language learning, cultural and personal change.

INTRODUCTION

Building upon Freire's (1973) groundbreaking literacy work, adult education researchers have explored the changes adults experience as they learn the written form of their language (Crandall & Peyton, 1993; Hammond & Macken-Horarik, 1999). Mezirow's (1990, 1996) work in perspective transformation has also been applied as a lens through which to view literacy learning experiences and cultural change (Kennedy, 1994; Taylor, 1994, 1998). However, to date, there has been no research inquiry about perspective transformation among a diverse group of adult ESL learners. This study begins to fill that void by examining the frequency and themes of perspective transformation among adult ESL learners.

Transformational learning is the process whereby adult learners critically examine their beliefs, assumptions and values in light of acquiring new knowledge and begin a process of change (Mezirow, 1990, 1996). Literacy educators recognize that language learning can result in changes to an individual's identity (Bell, 1997). The "ideological model" of literacy views literacy, and ESL, as social, political, and economic realities of society (Foster, 1997; Frye, 1999, Rivera, 1999; Ulman, 1999; Wrigley & Guth, 1992). Bridging transformational learning theory with these perspectives of personal and social change stresses the integration of new learning with life experiences among adult ESL learners. Although educators know little about perspective transformation among adult ESL learners, this research builds upon literacy theory and research in examining perspective transformation in higher education settings.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research was conducted from a phenomenological perspective in order to understand the participants' views of their perspective transformation experiences (Cresswell, 1998). An assessment tool and interview format, the "Learning Activities Survey," (King, 1998) that was developed from pilot studies was used; these data gathering tools included objective and free response questions. The follow-up interviews were an essential part of the data gathering and were conducted in order to supplement the survey data and verify initial data analysis. The "Learning Activities Survey" was originally developed to be used among adult learners in higher education; therefore, it had to be revised and piloted for use among adult college ESL learners (King, 1997). The revision of the instruments was accomplished through several iterative cycles that included 61 adult learners in programs and settings similar to the target sample.

The final form of the assessment tool and interview format, the "Learning Activities Survey--ESL Format," included changes in vocabulary, specialized questions about perspective transformation and demographics that were pertinent for adult ESL learners. As in the original study (King, 1997, 1998a) the validity of the instrument was verified through follow-up interviews with the participants and triangulation of the collected data. The resulting 4-page instrument includes objective and free response questions and has an additional parallel interview format of 12 questions.

The first section of the survey questionnaire guides the participant through an examination of possible perspective transformation experiences the respondents may have experienced. Five questions probe these experiences in order for the participant to provide enough information for the researcher to identify perspective transformation experiences. The second section of the questionnaire presents a list of possible learning activities, persons/support, and life changes that may have contributed to the perspective transformation experience; the respondent is asked to select all of those that have influenced the changes they experienced. The final section of the instrument gathers demographic information and presents an opportunity for the participant to volunteer for a follow-up interview. Survey packets containing copies of the instrument, instructions, and consent forms were distributed to the participating instructors in three different college ESL programs.

After initial coding and analysis of the data, in the second phase of the research, follow-up interviews were conducted in English and/or Spanish in order to augment the survey data with further inquiry and to evaluate the initial analysis of the data that had been gathered. Based on an examination of their questionnaire and their availability, 24 interviews in English and/or Spanish were conducted among participants who had had a perspective transformation within the context of their ESL education. The interview questions expanded on the original survey questions in order to draw further explanations and examples from the participants.

During the initial analysis of the data, a Perspective Transformation-Index (PT-Index; King, 1997, 1998a, 1998b) category was assigned to each completed questionnaire; this coding of perspective transformation experiences was determined by an assessment of responses to five questions in the questionnaire. By using responses to these five probing questions, a more complete evaluation of the respondent's experience is afforded than could be gained from a single response. The three PT-Index categories indicate whether the participants have had a perspective transformation in regard to experiences in adult ESL classes, whether they have had a perspective transformation, but not in relation to the educational process, or whether they have not had a perspective transformation.

The final analysis of the data included coding of checklists, free responses, and follow-up interviews. These data were coded by reduction where statements are examined and analyzed to determine possible meanings and as these meanings emerge they are grouped by similarities or themes (Cresswell, 1998; Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996). This model enabled the researcher to examine the learners' perspective transformation experiences for unifying themes, rather than imposing preconceived ideas on the data.

PARTICIPANTS

Two hundred and eight adult learners enrolled in college-based ESL programs participated in this study. The study was conducted in the greater New York City metropolitan area. One of the colleges was a state university, one a private university and the third was a community college. Intermediate and advanced ESL students were sought because of the required reading level to complete the instrument.

The age range of the participants was 18-59; however, 75% of the respondents were between the ages of 18 and 29. In addition, 75.2% were single, 23.8% married, and 1% divorced or separated. As regards gender as a descriptor, 63.9% were female and 36.1% were male. The participants identified themselves according to four categories of race; White, non-Hispanic, 20.9%; Hispanic, 40.3%; Black, non-Hispanic, 14.9%; Asian or Pacific Islander, 19.9% and 4.0% other. Countries of origin numbered 51, with the following 5 countries having the most representatives: Haiti, 13%, Colombia, 12%, Peru and Poland, 7.2% each, and Ecuador, 4.8%. The countries of origin may be geographically summarized as: South America and Latin America, 59%; Eastern Europe, 16.1%; Asia, 14.6%; Africa, 7.3%; Europe, 3%.

An important descriptor of adult learners is prior education level. This sample's distribution was different from expectations of college students in general, but not atypical of college ESL classes. The respondents' prior education levels were dominated by the categories of "some elementary school" at 61.5% and "some university" at 22.5%; this fact depicts the diverse educational preparation represented among these college ESL learners that provides more of a parallel to non-college programs than one might otherwise expect. In excess of two-thirds (67.4%) of the respondents had been in ESL classes for 1 to 3 years; however, most were relatively new, continuing students. There was a broad range of time that the learners had been in the USA: from one month to thirty-eight years. This frequency distribution is skewed toward the more recent, lower, end where the mean number of years of residence was M = 5.1 years, the median was 3.5, and the standard deviation, SD = 5.18. This analysis confirms that most of the adult ESL learners have been in the USA from 3 to 5 years. The sample was primarily young, recently immigrated, and continuing in their studies as ESL learners. A typical profile of this study's participants is a single, Hispanic female in her 20's with "some" prior, formal elementary schooling, who has emigrated from a Latin American country within the last 3-5 years.

FINDINGS

More than half (66.8%; N = 208) of the ESL adult learners recognized their educational experience as contributing to a perspective transformation and widely identified with Mezirow's stages of perspective transformation as represented in the assessment. In earlier research among adult learners in higher education, 32.5% (N = 422) of the participants experienced transformational learning in relation to their educational studies (King, 1997); therefore, indicating that transformational learning theory is an appropriate perspective from which to view the college ESL experience. In fact, examination of the participants in this study reveals three themes of perspective transformation experiences: language learning, cultural, and personal change.

The participants in this study clearly demonstrated identification with perspective transformation experiences by selecting Mezirow's stages as represented in the instrument. And while perspective transformation does not happen in a vacuum, these learners recounted that adult ESL learning experiences were pivotal facilitators. This finding confirms the expectation of this researcher and others (Foster, 1997) that the adult ESL experience has many possibilities for perspective transformation. The more we can learn about this experience, the better we may understand and serve adult learners.

The transformations experienced by these learners had great impact and were far-reaching. In the words of one participant, "What changed? My attitude, my personality, my behavior, my language, the way I act." In each of the three themes of perspective transformation, language learning, cultural, and personal, both instrumental and communicative learning were evidenced. While both objective, purely cognitive, and subjective, personal, reframing of perspective transformation were evident, the most vividly recounted were the personal examination and change inherent in subjective reframing (Mezirow, 1990, 1996). True to the classic definition of perspective transformation, some of these accounts relate foundational changes in behavior and perspective as the learners become more accepting of people from other cultures.

The first emerging theme of transformational learning was language learning; as the participants engaged in adult ESL classes, their ideas about learning the English language changed. Some of them thought English was easier and/or more enjoyable to learn than they expected, and others saw relationships of similarity or dissimilarity between their native language and English. This highlights the fact that adult ESL learners come to educational experiences with preconceived ideas about the English language and learning it, and that while it could be just objective reframing, instead the learners were engaged in evaluating their own assumptions and beliefs. The adult ESL learners who participated in this study evidently represent programs that are successful in overcoming language related barriers and further research may reveal the reasons for their success in order to inform other ESL programs.

A second major theme of perspective transformation among these responses, cultural changes, was also twofold in nature: learning the United States culture (acculturation) and developing intercultural awareness. The adult ESL learners were surprised that the American culture they were learning to cope with was different from what they had expected. For example,

> My ESL classes help me to feel more comfortable in the US and the society. It also has changed my ideas about Americans.
>
> I understand better the American culture, so that I see now the country, the USA, with another point of view. They have helped me to know my position in the society that I am living in. Because I'm learning the English language I've seen the country in a different way.

The learners repeatedly echoed the second major development within their social and cultural understanding, they became more aware of and appreciative of people from other cultures. In the scope of perspective transformation, intercultural awareness is a significant breakthrough; these ESL classes were effective in helping to guide learners through this experience and they readily described the changes:

> Sometimes our views was (sic) wrong on some ideas. After we discuss that we realize that our views is (sic) wrong. If we listen to someone else we also learn how to understand them better.
>
> In the ESL class we often talk about religion, people beliefs which made me change my opinion about others with different beliefs.
>
> I have become a more objective person since taking ESL - I believe that every religion, every culture, has a different way of thinking and are good like mine.

The perspective transformations that comprise the cultural theme vary in several ways. In one respect, ideas about the American culture could be wedded to the individual or merely be a superficial opinion, and yet intercultural awareness and tolerance is usually deeply rooted within an individual (Brown, 1994). In addition, the intercultural awareness usually had more to do with interpersonal interactions and risky self-assessment, that the reshaping of ideas about American culture did not necessarily entail. However, all the accounts that were of a cultural theme were tied to preconceived ideas and beliefs about cultures, the learners had to face a disparity in their belief system, evaluate the difference, and make a decision to accept a new perspective. These are very vivid, classic examples of the kind of perspective transformations adult ESL learners experience about culture.

The third theme of perspective transformation was in the scope of personal change. The adult ESL learners reported how they gained greater self-esteem and empowerment as they learned to cope with learning the new language and culture. This greater self-confidence affected what they did, how they related to others, and how they thought about themselves.

> By learning the language I was capable to read papers and what is most important to understand them. So I could judge on what I see and read, instead of what I hear from others.
>
> Now I can understand the news on TV. I can go to different places and talk with other people. I feel different than before.
>
> I never thought I could study in an American University, now English has opened other doors for my future in this country. I say, if I want it, I can do it.

One familiar and predominate goal of adult education is to empower adults, and this research demonstrates a clear manifestation of empowerment in adult ESL learning that promotes transformative learning (Brookfield, 1990; Hammond & Macken-Horarik, 1999). These adult ESL learners have provided a window into the process by which they have experienced changes in their perspective of their beliefs, assumptions, and points of view and transitioned to a more comprehensive and differentiated frame of reference.

CONCLUSION

This research has continued the investigation and discussion of transformational learning among adult ESL learners (King, 1999). The perspective transformation experience is one with which adult ESL learners largely identify. The substantial changes in their perspectives tend to be a subjective reframing of their values, beliefs, and assumptions about language learning, intercultural awareness, and personal empowerment. Critical literacy suggests an emphasis on developing the ability for learners to interact critically and analytically with knowledge (Hammond & Macken-Horarik, 1999). Based on this research, the critical literacy learning emphasis is consistent with an explanation of the adult ESL experience with transformational learning.

Brookfield (1990) and others (Hammond & Macken-Horarik, 1999; Johnston, 1999) maintain that teaching is not a neutral activity, but instead political. Adult ESL learners' experiences of transformational learning also confirm this perspective when one reflects on the changes in the learners' views of language and culture. In concert with Freirean roots, adult ESL engages adults to realize a greater sense of agency or empowerment, which is an essential part of transformational learning.

This research also offers additional insight into the changes and concomitant needs of adult ESL learners. Perspective transformation may serve as a platform upon which programs can justify gaining additional support services for their adult learners. Certainly change among adult ESL learners is not a new concept; however, this research documents these experiences through educational learning theory and may serve as a strong claim for needed resources for these learners. In these ways, the lens of perspective transformation provides another framework from which adult ESL learning, growth, change, and practice can be analyzed, interpreted, and discussed.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

In addition to other sources (Burt, 1998), this research supports several recommendations for future research among ESL learners, and about transformational learning in particular. Understanding the critical literacy learning process may be furthered by examining transformational learning for this purpose. Engaging adult ESL learners in learning activities for the expressed purpose of language and critical literacy while studying the stage-wise progress of perspective transformation may yield a better understanding of how to facilitate such learning. In addition, adult ESL learners' experiences of language, cultural, and personal perspective transformations could be the individual or joint focus of future research. This present study may be seen as a validation that indeed adult ESL learners do experience some particular and common perspective transformations during the course of their studies; future work could move in the direction of exploring these experiences in-depth in case studies or other qualitative modes. Whatever future research is pursued, transformational learning theory may serve as a foundation to better understanding the transitions and transformations experienced by adult ESL learners. To this end, it is hoped these research efforts will result in improving the entirety of adult ESL educational practice.

REFERENCES

Bell, J. S. (1997). *Literacy, culture and identity.* New York: P. Lang

Brookfield, S. D. (1990). *The skillful teacher: On technique, trust, and responsiveness in the classroom.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Brown, H. D. (1994). *Principles of language learning and teaching (3rd ed.).* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Burt, M. (Ed.). (1998). *Research agenda for adult ESL.* Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Crandall, J., & Peyton, J. (Eds.). (1993). *Approaches to adult ESL literacy instruction: Language in education.* Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Literacy Education for Limited-English-Proficient Adults. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 364 127).

Cresswell, J. W. (1998). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Foster, E. (Summer, 1997). Transformative learning in adult second language learning. In P. Cranton (Ed.)., *Transformative learning in action: Insights from practice* (pp. 33-40). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. (New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education, No. 74)

Freire, P. (1973). *Education for critical consciousness.* New York: Seabury.

Frye, B. (1999). Participatory education as a critical framework for an immigrant women's ESL class. *TESOL Quarterly, 33*(3), 501-513.

Gall, M. D., Borg, W. R., & Gall, J. P. (1996). *Educational research: An introduction (6th ed).* White Plains, NY: Longman.

Hammond, J., & Macken-Horarik, M. (1999). Critical literacy: Challenges and questions for ESL classrooms. *TESOL Quarterly, 33*(3), 528-565.

Johnston, B. (1999). Putting critical pedagogy in its place: A personal account. *TESOL Quarterly, 33*(3), 557-565.

Kennedy, J. (1994). *The individual's transformational learning experience as a cross-cultural sojourner: Descriptive models.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Fielding Institute, Santa Barbara, CA.

King, K. P. (1997). Examining learning activities and transformational learning. *International Journal of University Adult Education, 36*(3), 23-37.

King, K. P. (1998a). *A guide to perspective transformation and learning activities: The Learning Activities Survey.* Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools.

King, K. P. (1998b). How adult learners change in adult education. *Proceedings of the 39th Annual Adult Education Research Conference* (pp. 209-214). San Antonio, TX: University of the Incarnate Word. [Online]. Available: http://www.edst.educ.ubc.ca/aerc/1998 98king.htm

King, K. P. (1999). Changing languages, cultures, and self: The adult ESL experience of perspective transformation. In A. Rose (Ed.). *Proceedings of the 40th Annual Adult Education Research Conference* (pp. 175-180).. DeKalb, IL: Northern Illinois University. [Online]. Available: http://www.edst.educ.ubc.ca/aerc/1999/99king.htm.

Mezirow, J. (1990). *Fostering critical reflection in adulthood: A guide to transformative and emancipatory learning.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mezirow, J. (1996). Toward a learning theory in adult literacy. *Adult Education Quarterly, 6*(3), 115-126.

Rivera, K. M. (1999). Popular research and social transformation: A community-based approach to critical pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly, 33*(3), 485-500.

Taylor, E. (1994). Intercultural competency: A transformative learning process. *Adult Education Quarterly, 44*(4), 154-174.

Taylor, E. (1998). *The theory and practice of transformative learning: A critical review.* Columbus, OH: ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 423 422).

Ulman, C. (1999). Between discourse and practice: Immigrant rights, curriculum development and ESL teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly, 33*(3), 513-528.

Wrigley, H. S. & Guth, J. A. (1992). *Bringing literacy to life: Issues and options in adult ESL literacy.* San Mateo, CA: Aguirre Publishing.

Kathleen P. King, Ed.D., Assistant Professor, Fordham University, 113 W 60th St., Rm. 1102, New York, NY 10023. Kpking@Fordham.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

TEACHING COMMUNITY-DIRECTED EDUCATION AND RESEARCH METHODS AND TECHNIQUES: A CASE STUDY

Joyce S. McKnight

ABSTRACT

This case study describes the use of a simulation exercise as an experiential approach to the teaching of community-directed education and research processes. Using role play, the author and nine non-traditional adult students engaged in a simulation exercise which traced the evolution of a human service agency from its inception as an area of community concern to its completion as a formal proposal.

Course work took place on two levels. First, the class developed a proposal for a mediation/violence prevention center that is in the process of implementation. Second, a process of *praxis* was used to teach students the knowledge, skills, and values needed to work effectively in community-directed projects.

The research methodology included observation of classroom dynamics recorded in the author's research journal, formative evaluation as the class unfolded, and summative evaluation using in-depth interviews at the completion of the course.

The teacher and students concluded that the simulation of a community-directed group was an effective learning technique. They experienced both the excitement and frustration of working with others to define direction for a broad concept. They were also able to reflect on their own styles of group participation and on how they might modify their behavior in the future. All but one agreed that the experience was a valuable one that could be applied to their human service vocation.

INTRODUCTION

Adult Educators and other human service professionals are often called upon to provide leadership in collaborative projects benefiting geographic communities or communities of interest. Work with such projects requires the ability to sensitively listen, effectively assert one's point of view, manage conflict, solve problems, gather information, consolidate findings, and develop effective proposals in a way that includes all participants. This non-linear, collaborative process is difficult to convey using conventional teaching techniques. Simulation and other experiential techniques can be useful in enabling reflective practice (Galbraith, 1998; Schon, 1987; Vella, 1994).

CONTEXT

This simulation was included as a portion of "Community Intervention and Case-management," the capstone course of a community college associate degree program in human services. Students had completed a broad curriculum including human services, psychology, sociology, social problems, and specialty courses in childcare, criminal justice, or aging. The course was intended to consolidate the knowledge, values, attitudes, and skills needed to perform effectively in community based human service programs. The simulation was included because human service professionals are often called to assist in the development of community-directed projects and to enable students to reflect on their own approaches to teamwork.

Students ranged in age from 19 to 42. Four were in the 19-24 year old "traditional aged" category while five were adult students. All were "non-traditional students" for whom college courses were only part of busy lives.

DESIGN OF THE SIMULATION

SETTING THE STAGE

The simulation was used during the first seven weeks of the fourteen week semester. Students were asked to imagine that they were members of the general public who had decided to come to a meeting aimed at violence prevention in their geographic community. The instructor and students worked together to define the roles which included a police officer concerned about the prevention of youth violence, a case manager who worked with both victims and offenders, a teacher who had been the victim of a violent attack, a woman who has suffered spouse abuse, a female minister, a juvenile probation worker, an African-American mother of four, and a concerned property owner. Each student chose his/her own role and was asked to play the role as he/she would play it in real life. The teacher played herself, a community-organizer who lives and works in an inner-city neighborhood and who is also developing a mediation practice. Students were aware that the results of the simulation would be combined with work done by others outside the college context to develop a comprehensive program for violence prevention.

EXPLORING BROAD CONCERNS

The simulation followed a spiral process of program development based on consensus. The first four sessions were spent broadly exploring the field of concern by talking about individual experiences and about the field of violence control and alternate dispute resolution. This discussion clarified the focus of the simulation. The group found the process somewhat frustrating as there was a tendency to re-visit possible approaches to violence prevention. In some ways, the group worked by elimination of options. For instance, it was decided not to focus on such means of violence prevention as gun control and stricter law enforcement. Instead, the group chose to focus on teaching alternatives to violence. The group also considered the potential scope of the program and decided upon a two-county area with special focus on inner-city neighborhoods. Schools were eliminated as a focus because several school-based anti-violence programs already exist and it is difficult for outside groups to gain access to schools in the area. This discussion resulted in a preliminary mission statement: "Our mission is to open peaceful alternatives to violence for the people of Cambria and Somerset Counties with a focus on the City of Johnstown."

CONSOLIDATION OF INFORMATION

At least every other class period the teacher acted as a "designated learner" (McKnight, 1995) who consolidated the discussion notes and kept the process on track.

As the process continued, the group began to more clearly define the phrase "peaceful alternatives to violence" and uncovered several options:

1. Internal approaches that teach self-control and anger management
2. Victim focused approaches to domestic violence which emphasize self-confidence.
3. Approaches that teach new ways of communicating including problem solving and conflict resolution either through individual efforts or through mediation.
4. Approaches that emphasize the dire results of violence such as "scared straight" programs where young people are taken to jails or prisons to hear and see the likely results of violence
5. Programs which emphasize recreation and other worthwhile activities as alternatives to unstructured time and which also incorporate peaceful means of conflict resolution.

A consensus developed through conversation that the program should focus on: teaching new ways of communication; using mediation as the principle way of intervening in disputes; emphasizing self-control and self-confidence in all work with individuals, and offering recreation and other worthwhile activities as alternatives to unstructured time

DEFINING BROAD OBJECTIVES

An informal community resource analysis revealed that domestic violence issues and anger management were already being addressed by existing agencies. The group decided that it would be appropriate to work with these agencies, but not attempt to compete with them. It was also decided that we did not want to become involved with such "tough love" approaches as "scared straight".

The instructor taught the group a forced choice model of decision making. This led to a decision that the project would emphasize work with families to teach peaceful alternatives to violence and that we would also work with children and youth within targeted neighborhoods. The group also decided to keep open the option of working with schools if opportunities opened.

LOCATING BENCHMARKS ON THE INTERNET

With these general principles in mind the group next explored the Inter-net to locate some benchmark programs. The participants were able to find a number of sites and model programs, although the exploration process was somewhat frustrating. Although the programs were quite different from each other, most community-based programs had a very small core staff and made use of large numbers of volunteers. Overall the internet exploration yielded a number of sources of potential advice and also demonstrated that it would be feasible to develop a Center to provide various forms of mediation as well as recreational/outreach programs targeted to at-risk communities.

BUILDING THE FORMAL PROGRAM PROPOSAL

The group discovered that some of the services to be offered were already present in embryonic form and had some links to the college that could be used to form a basis for the proposed Center.

Students then began to work in two directions. First, it seemed appropriate to actually name our project. Several choices were presented but the one which appealed to almost everyone was A-VOICE (Anti-violence Options In Community Education) proposed by one of the adult students.

Second, the group was ready to address the issue of structure. The instructor proposed that A-VOICE become a "Center" under the auspices of the community college. The students said that such a place would be useful but that the relatively new community college is not yet big enough to sponsor such an effort. An second option seemed to be to develop a free-standing center that would offer the proposed services along with internships and work study options. A third option was to continue to operate on an *ad hoc* basis while working to develop the free standing agency. The third alternative was chosen and the instructor was delegated to bring it to fruition in Spring semester with the help of two student interns from the class.

The class then turned to skill building in other areas related to entry level human service practice.

The instructor has since completed a formal proposal and work plan which is being implemented with others from the community.

RESEARCH METHODS

This study was based on participatory action research (Argyris, Putnam, & Smith, 1985; Fernandes & Tandon, 1981; Heaney & Horton, 1990; Vella, 1994) with the teacher as both facilitator and active participant. The process proceeded on two levels. Most of the time the group focused on the process of collaborative program development interspersed with periods of reflection on the learning process which were recorded by the students and later summarized by the teacher. Other methods included observations of classroom dynamics recorded in reflective memos in the author's research journal, informal discussions with the students as the simulation unfolded which resulted in mid-course changes (formative evaluation), and individual interviews with the students at the conclusion of the course (summative evaluation).

FINDINGS

STUDENT FEEDBACK

All of the students felt that they learned from the simulation although there seemed to be two sub-groups. Three students in the younger group felt that they would have benefited from initial lectures on how human service agencies are created. They also felt that less time should have been spent on the simulation and more time on other human service related skills such as counseling, networking, and paperwork which were perceived to be more central to the profession. One young student had been placed in the course because others had cancelled. She rebelled against the whole process and at times was disruptive. An adult student felt that the course should have followed the book more closely as she intends to pursue a higher academic degree and was afraid that she would have an insufficient base to do so. The remaining five students felt that the simulation was very useful. They cited listening skills, consensus building activities, internet exploration, and forced-choice decision making as highlights of the experience. Three students wished that the simulation had continued so that they could have participated in the actual proposal creation (which was done by the teacher on behalf of the group in the interest of time). Two of these students will be pursuing internships with the instructor which will complete the proposal process and the launching of the project. All of the students felt that they learned about their own styles of group participation and felt that they would be able to more effectively participate in community-directed planning groups because of the experience.

TEACHER FINDINGS

The following findings emerged from the teaching experience and reflective data. They are presented in no particular order.

It was hard to teach the course because of the need to move between different levels of participation, active teaching, and reflection. Summative reflections scattered throughout the process helped somewhat.

Because the simulation was designed to reflect real life experiences, the consensus building process could not be hurried too much, yet one was always aware of the time constraints of the class period and the semester.

Collaborative learning such as this simulation experience involves loss of some control over the classroom, especially compared to the more traditional lecture and discussion format. The process plays itself out very much as it would in real life including times of circular thinking and frustration. Thus, the simulation was fairly realistic.

On the other hand, the students were aware of the power differential between themselves and the teacher in ways that would not have been so great in an actual community group. Moreover, no one was free to leave because of grading requirements. (For instance, the disgruntled student described above would have probably left a real community group. In this group, she stayed but was disruptive).

The role of "designated learner," the person who pulls together the group findings on a day-to-day basis and may do outside research on behalf of the group (McKnight, 1995), is very important because it keeps the process on track. In the undergraduate classroom this is best performed by the teacher.

Evaluation of performance was a problem. In this case the teacher developed a checklist of expectations for self-grading. The self-grades were compared with the teacher assessments in personal interviews at the end of the semester. The students' self-evaluations agreed with the teacher's evaluations in almost every case. Many felt the expectations of the class were too lenient. They wanted additional assignments.

SUMMATIVE EVALUATION

Simulation worked very well as a way of teaching students how it feels to actually be involved in community directed education and research (i.e. working with others to meet human needs working upwards from the grassroots). This kind of collaboration is an important skill for all kinds of human service workers as well as for adult and community educators.

Only a few relatively minor changes will be made as the course "Community Intervention and Case Management" continues to be taught. The simulation will be the focus of the last three weeks of class rather than coming at the beginning. This will allow time for students to practice case management skills they will use directly with clients. The subject of the simulation will be left to the students involved in the class. Evaluation criteria for the self-grading exercise will be given to students at the beginning of class. Students will be expected to spend more time on the needs/resource assessment phase of the project and more systematic ways of exploring the internet will be developed.

Overall, simulation was found to be an effective way of teaching the subtle processes of collaborative learning in a community setting.

REFERENCES

Argyris, C., Putnam, R., & Smith, D. (1985). *Action science concepts, methods, and skills for research and intervention*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Fernandes, W., & Tandon, R. (1981). *Participatory research and evaluation: Experiments in research as a process of liberation*. New Delhi: Indian Social Institute.

Galbraith, M. .(1998). *Adult learning methods* (2nd ed.). Malabar, FL: Krieger.

Heaney, T., & Horton, A. (1990). Reflective engagement for social change. In J. Mezirow & Associates, *Fostering critical reflection in adulthood: A guide to transformative and emancipatory learning* (pp. 74-98). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

McKnight, J. (1995). *Toward a grounded, substantive theory of the control of learning in altruistic grassroots initiatives*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park. (University Microfilms No. 95-31987)

Schon, D. A. (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner: Toward a design for teaching and learning in the professions*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Vella, J. (1994). *Learning to listen, learning to teach: The power of dialogue in educating adults*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Joyce S. McKnight, D.Ed., N.C.C., 632 Menoher Blvd., Johnstown, PA 15901, 539-0719. hmckn111@aol.com

Thanks to the students at Cambria County Area Community College who participated.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

LEARNING TO LEARN:
WHAT HAPPENS WHEN RESEARCH RECOMMENDATIONS HIT THE GROUND?

Katie Morrow

ABSTRACT

This paper outlines preliminary observations from an action learning project at a small literacy council. The initial impetus for this process came from the *Bridges to Practice* guidelines, supported by the National Institute for Literacy, which were written to stimulate systemic change on behalf of learning disabled adult literacy students. In a volunteer context national policy initiatives cannot be implemented by fiat, but must be negotiated with tutors and with students. Literacy Council facilitators initiated a participatory pilot program where tutors and students were trained together in new research-based approaches. Although participants reported that the relationship between tutors and students was profoundly changed as a result of participating in the project, most participants did not take advantage of specialized assessments or dramatically change their actual instructional approaches. The nature of volunteer literacy militates against some of these approaches because of time constraints and because of the paucity of tutor-friendly materials available to support them. In the absence of such materials, local councils run the risk of diluting or distorting the approaches in their attempt to encourage tutors to implement them. Lasting systemic change requires time, energy and resources at all levels, with particular attention paid to the needs of those who are providing services.

INTRODUCTION

Action research, participatory inquiry, multiple perspectives, rapid change, learning organizations—the work this paper represents can be situated somewhere among this welter of turn of the century concepts and buzzwords. Action research has a long and venerable history. In essence it is the notion that engaging stakeholders in a process of reflective inquiry as they work on problems which are meaningful to them, will lead to deeper mutual understanding, more effective activity, and longer-lasting improvements (Stringer, 1999). There is a great deal of evidence to show that implementing substantive and sustainable change at a community level requires a process of collective learning and re-framing old constructs (Chambers, 1992; Schein, 1998). Organizations that seek to survive in an era of rapid change are well advised, therefore, to become proficient at learning (Argyris, 1993).

This paper presents the first steps taken by a small volunteer literacy council to initiate a process of systemic change to improve outcomes for learning disabled (LD) students and to use action research as a way of facilitating, monitoring and evaluating this change process.

During this phase, we have explored three domains of inquiry:

1. Can we engage our volunteer tutors and students in a process of participatory inquiry? If so, what will result?
2. Given the resource and capacity constraints of a small literacy council, what actions can we take which will positively benefit students with learning disabilities or difficulties?
3. What actually happens when a small literacy council grapples with national research recommendations? What compromises are made? What upward recommendations can we make to national policy agencies?

The volunteer literacy movement is founded on the premise that non-professional volunteers can help adults to learn basic literacy skills and that this can be accomplished in the interstices of the busy lives of volunteer tutors and students alike. The Cape Fear Literacy Council (CFLC), with a staff of four, is a small Laubach-affiliated volunteer literacy council annually serving approximately 350 literacy students. Each year its volunteer training team trains approximately 150 new volunteer tutors and provides additional in-service training to existing tutors.

In 1998-9 The National Institute for Literacy, in conjunction with the National Adult Literacy and Learning Disabilities Center, published *Bridges to Practice: A Research-based Guide for Literacy Practitioners Serving Adults with Learning Disabilities.* This five-volume set of guidebooks (referred to in this text as Bridges) was written to stimulate a process of systemic change to improve outcomes for learning disabled adult literacy students. In addition, the Learning Disabilities Training and Dissemination (LDTD) project was developed to build the capacity of literacy providers to implement the Bridges guidelines. North Carolina was chosen as one of the pilot states through the Laubach Literacy Action-Literacy Volunteers of America hub, and CFLC was chosen as one of six pilot councils in North Carolina to participate in the project.

Estimates for the number of adult education students who are likely to be learning disabled range from 50-80% (Vogel, 1998). As staff and training volunteers at a small literacy council, we were acutely aware that we had shied away from exploring learning disabilities in any depth and that we provided relatively little in the way of special services for clients likely to be learning disabled. We were, therefore, eager to investigate the Bridges recommendations. Our involvement was made easier because one member of the state LDTD training team was also our lead trainer.

For the Cape Fear Literacy Council, the overall project has many aspects and will take several years to implement. We have begun to critically examine our operational assumptions and practices, develop and monitor indicators of systemic change, gather and learn from new sources of information, evaluate screening instruments and instructional materials, provide training to our board, staff, trainer, tutors and students, disseminate information and resource materials for tutors and students, and so on.

This paper focuses on one aspect of the project—the initial introduction and adaptation of new instructional approaches with tutors and students.

THE PILOT PROJECT

We were concerned that blindly attempting to implement the new research findings and new instructional approaches by simply adding on a Bridges-inspired module to our existing tutor-training workshop would prove fruitless. Training is one thing, actually doing what we have been trained to do is something entirely different and much more rare. Implementing the instructional approaches recommended in the Bridges guidelines would clearly demand a great deal of work, and some risks, for our tutors and students. Therefore, we felt the change process needed to be guided by their experiences and insights and that ultimately it would need to be integrated with other change processes.

Our first challenge was to create space for dialogue. Our basic approach to inviting participation was straightforward. After an initial open meeting of tutors and students to discuss learning issues in general, we invited interested tutors and students and all of the volunteer training team to join us in a pilot group. The pilot group's explicit brief was to experiment with new approaches and tools, to report on their experience and to make recommendations to CFLC at the end of the pilot period.

Fourteen tutor-student pairs participated. Seven students participated actively in the training and feedback sessions. The seven remaining students were "shadow" participants—that is they did not attend the sessions and their feedback was expressed primarily via their tutors. Participant demographics roughly matched those for the council as a whole, in order to test our assumption that teaching practices which are effective for LD students would also work well with all our students (Fowler & Scarborough, 1993).

All but the three ESL students were given the Payne Learning Needs Screening. The screening results for nine out of the remaining 11 students showed them in need of further evaluation for LD. The pilot group was presented with a series of assessment tasks modified from the very useful manual published by the Learning Disabilities Association of Canada, *Destination Literacy: Identifying and Teaching Adults with Learning Disabilities*. These assessments, which are conducted in collaboration with a student, are designed to give participants insight into particular areas of difficulty in decoding (including phonemic awareness), comprehension, writing, spelling and math. In addition, a variety of specific instructional interventions are also provided.

Tutors and students together received a day of training on screening and instruction. Follow up meetings took place over the subsequent four months. Three of the follow-up sessions included a new brief training component (on screening, assessment, and direct instruction, respectively) as well as allowing time for general discussion about how things were going. The LDTD trainer and her student served as an on going "case study" for the group and together they led the training sessions, with additional input from a special education consultant and facilitation by the program coordinator. The final meeting focused on eliciting feedback and recommendations.

We chose the SMARTER methodology as the focal point for our pilot because it is a general learning framework. As such, we believed it would be applicable to all learners (including tutors and trainers as learners). The framework, outlined in Bridges, volumes 3 and 4, was developed by Keith Lenz at the University of Kansas and makes explicit the need for adequate reflection and analysis as part of the learning cycle. Not only did this tie in with other metacognitive approaches, but it also mirrored our own desire to facilitate a process of wider reflection on behalf of the council. In addition, the framework is clear and simple to understand, if not to implement.

The principles which guided the facilitators included 1) creating a climate where genuine communication could take place, 2) active listening, 3) promising to take what was said seriously – that is to use what was said to guide future decision-making, 4) to model the SMARTER framework throughout the training making it explicit that the pilot process is an example of a learning cycle of action-reflection. Facilitator-led discussion was the primary vehicle for communication, but we also used a number of ranking and mapping tools to gather information more quickly and make it visible and accessible to participants (Pretty, Guijt, Thompson, & Scoones, 1996). In addition, participants kept learning journals and wrote short responses to questions during some sessions.

PRELIMINARY RESULTS

The pilot was exciting, touching, humbling and disappointing. Tutors and students alike highly valued the opportunity to talk together about learning and their insights and experiences have provided staff and trainers with a fresh perspective on tutor-student relationships and concerns. This opportunity appeared to have a transformative effect for many of the pilot pairs.

On the other hand, from the perspective of effective training in the Bridges-recommended approaches, we were unsuccessful. Although tutors and students reported that they enjoyed the training and found it stimulating, by the final session, only one pair reported using the SMARTER methodology consistently. Most pairs had used or adapted aspects of the framework. Only half of the participants reported even trying direct instruction methods, again reporting a fairly haphazard approach to it. Despite the fact that screening indicated that nearly all the students should undertake further assessment for LD, no students chose to undergo more extensive screening with the LD specialist. Only three pairs reported using the informal assessments to help them identify specific areas of weakness and gain insight into problem areas.

At the last pilot meeting tutors and students provided the literacy council with a list of simple, practical recommendations: to provide better resources that are easier to use, to continue to stimulate on-going discussion through more student and tutor meetings and in-services and to provide more assistance with assessment tasks. Overall they expressed relative contentment with the status quo at the literacy council, and did not particularly share our grand vision for systemic change.

LEARNING POINTS

One criticism leveled at action research projects is that nothing is proven and often nothing particularly startling is revealed. It is axiomatic that the greatest value and the greatest learning take place within and among participants. Many, if not all, of our "findings" have already been reported in the adult education literature. It is our hope that this brief summary of some of our key learning points captures a little of the flavor of tutors and students actually grappling with instructional decision making.

Opening up space for participatory inquiry changes the dynamics of the tutor-student relationship, which is at the heart of volunteer literacy. It is generally a relationship between people whose life experiences and relative social power are very different, and these differences may be intensified by additional cleavages along gender, ethnicity, age and class lines. Given all this, and the inherently unequal relationship implied by "tutor" and "student", it is unsurprising that much of the discussion in our pilot revolved around relationship issues. As people became comfortable with one another, they revealed more about their feelings, which were often intense, and even painful. Several pairs expressed their sense that their relationships had been stuck and that it had been difficult for students to make suggestions or to take the lead. For them, meeting together in a larger group helped to unfreeze the relationship and fostered a new sense of joint responsibility for learning, which they described with pleasure. As tutors and students saw each other more fully as ordinary, fallible, people with insecurities and fears, the power in several tutor-student relationships shifted. As one tutor put it, "It may have been disillusioning, but now we are just two adults trying to solve a problem together." Students expressed their greater sense of freedom in practical ways, for example by exploring the resource room for the first time, by suggesting new materials for tutors to use, or by rejecting some of their tutor's suggestions. As one student said, "I don't have to pretend any more."

A major theme of the pilot was reflection and analysis. As one student put it, "You're training us to use our minds. It's a whole new thing." The SMARTER cycle begins with asking questions, mapping and analyzing and tutors and students were given training in tools for analysis. Fostering the ability of LD students to think about how they learn—metacognitive approaches—has been widely viewed as a critical component of effective instruction. At the same time, the ability of tutors to observe, analyze and revise their instruction is at the heart of knowing how to work with specific learning difficulties. However, it is also very difficult. While students expressed some delight in thinking more deeply and using their minds, tutors expressed a great deal of hesitation, resistance and skepticism about analysis tasks.

For example, despite a fair amount of support, and despite general enthusiasm on the part of most of the students, many tutors resisted using mapping and lesson organizers. Their resistance was expressed most often as "we don't have time for that." Students on the other hand did not express any particular reservations and some were very positive about the mapping. "The map is like a mirror. With a mirror you can see your arms, your face. With the map, I can see my mind." On the other hand, we had also presented guided learning journals as a reflective tool to use at the end of lessons and that proved wildly popular, particularly with tutors. "The journal helps me think and set goals." "I was skeptical, but the journal has been a real positive step for us."

Volunteer tutors in our council rely on a variety of core materials to provide instruction to reading students. Tutors are trained to supplement these texts with a variety of real-life materials and additional exercises (for example, language experience writing and the newspaper) depending on student interests and needs. Core materials give both tutors and students a feeling of security and accomplishment. A 1998 evaluation of actual tutoring practices at CFLC revealed that our tutors in general valued using the core materials over twice as highly as using supplemental materials or techniques. However, pilot tutors and students reported dissatisfaction as they glided through workbooks even when students had not mastered the material. It was all too tempting for both tutors and students to use the completion of a given lesson as a sign of progress. "Our traditional method of marching through the core materials may be endangered," one tutor said.

During the first two months of the pilot, tutors and students were energized. They had begun to notice gaps in student's skills and to experiment with new approaches. Tutors and students were given additional (brief) training in direct instruction methods, which emphasizes the need for supported practice and review. Students expressed relief at having their learning needs better understood. As one student put it, "I have to get the foundation. I'm a builder. It's no good putting a roof on if the foundation isn't strong." These kinds of observations prompted tutors and student to return to basic foundational skills, to spend more time in review and to seek more appropriate forms of independent practice.

However, by the end of the pilot, nearly all of the tutors and students said that they were for the most part they were all continuing to work in their core materials in much the same way as they had been four months earlier. Why? The two most frequent explanations they gave were lack of time and lack of appropriate additional materials to use. To this the facilitators would add that for the most part even the most dedicated volunteer tutors have a limited interest in becoming literacy "experts" and they resist approaches that require a major investment of time and energy to learn.
It is a truism that adult literacy students and volunteer tutors have busy lives. During the course of the pilot tutoring schedules were disrupted by two hurricanes and the holiday season. In the same four month period, the majority of students experienced some sort of major life disruption: two were laid off work, two found new jobs in other towns, one became ill, one had to care for a new grandchild, one was involved in a drive by shooting, and so on.

Given these disruptions, the initial impetus to try out something new in a tutoring session often gave way to "catching up" when tutors and students did find time to meet. The new instructional approaches demand a greater degree of initial discussion, assessment and planning than most pairs were able to generate on their own. Although we had attempted to provide a context where jointly tutors and students could change norms, in the end old habits and ways of thinking prevailed. In the language of Schein, "for change to remain stable, it must be 'refrozen'" (Schein, 1998), and in order for refreezing to take place, learners must find ways to invent their own solutions.

Some pilot tutors and students have begun to do this. However, while they experienced a resurgence of energy and interest in learning coupled with a sense of adventure, we felt they may have diluted or distorted research-based methods in their personal adaptation of them. Other pairs simply gave up on the new approaches and reverted to timeworn techniques, which have indeed proved reasonably successful in the past. The very nature of volunteer literacy militates against some of these approaches that demand a degree of time, expertise and resources not currently available in a volunteer context.

Action research is, by its nature, not a one-shot deal. This pilot represents only the first stage in a particular spiral of learning and changing for our council. During the course of the pilot, John Corcoran, author of The Teacher Who Couldn't Read, and a well-known advocate on behalf of learning disabled students visited us. Corcoran learned to read with a volunteer literacy tutor, but after experiencing some initial success, he turned to more expert help at a Lindamood clinic. In talking to CFLC staff he emphasized that for people like him "a heart of gold is not enough," councils must also be able to provide those students who need it better instruction based on scientific research.

Given that tutors are generally not professional educators and that tutoring is a small part of their lives it appears that if we want to be able to do this, we must radically re-think our delivery systems. Alternatively, we can accept our limitations and seek instead to help learning-disabled students access other specialized sources of help. Unfortunately such sources are now either non-existent, tremendously expensive or time-consuming, or available only to a very few students. We believe, therefore, that there will continue to be a need for non-professional volunteers to tutor learning disabled students. Therefore, we believe that there is an urgent need for materials specifically designed for volunteer tutors working with adult students who have the characteristics of learning disabilities. There is an urgent need for research specifically undertaken within the context of volunteer literacy to illuminate the possibilities for all of us.

Lasting systemic change requires time, energy and resources at all levels, and at this stage it is unclear to us exactly what it is feasible to implement, given the relative lack of additional resources, both financial and instructional. Adult literacy educators are being buffeted by a variety of different forces for change. For example, the new National Reporting System associated with the Workforce Investment Act has created another set of demands on our resources. In a volunteer context national policy initiatives cannot be implemented by fiat, but must be negotiated with tutors and with students. It is our hope that the enormous value of volunteer efforts in providing literacy services will not be diminished by top-down expectations but will be enhanced by finding fresh and creative ways to support their best efforts. Particular attention must be paid to the context and needs of those who are actually providing instruction. General principles and evaluative guidelines are not sufficient.

REFERENCES

Argyris, C. (1993). *Knowledge for action.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Chambers, R. (1992). *Rural appraisal: Rapid, relaxed and participatory* (Discussion Paper 311). Sussex, UK: Institute of Development Studies.

Corcoran, J. (1994). *The teacher who couldn't read.* Colorado Springs, CO: Focus on the Family.

Fowler, A. E., & Scarborough, H. S. (1993). *Should reading-disabled adults be distinguished from other adults seeking literacy instruction?* (Technical Report TR 93-7). Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, National Center on Adult Literacy.

Learning Disabilities Association of Canada. (1999). *Destination literacy: Identifying and teaching adults with learning disabilities.* Ottawa, QC, Canada: Author.

National Adult Literacy and Learning Disabilities Center. (1999). *Bridges to practice: A research-based guide for literacy practitioners serving adults with learning disabilities. Guidebooks 1-5.* Washington, DC: Author.

Pretty, J. N., Guijt I., Thompson, J. & Scoones, I. (1996). *Participatory learning and action.* London: International Institute for Environment and Development.

Schein, E. H. (1998). *Kurt Lewin's change theory in the field and in the classroom: Notes toward a model of managed learning.* Retrieved August 8, 1999, from SOL Database on the World Wide Web: http://www.sol-ne.org/res/wp/10006.html

Stringer, E. T. (1999). *Action research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Vogel, S. A. (1998). Adults with learning disabilities: What learning disabilities specialists, adult literacy educators, and other service providers want and need to know. In S. A. Vogel & S. Reder (Eds.), *Learning disabilities, literacy and adult education* (pp. 5-28). Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Co.

Katie Morrow, Cape Fear Literacy Council, 1012 S. 17th Street, Wilmington NC 28412, (910) 251-0911, literacy@wilmington.net.

This paper is dedicated to Robert M., one of the pilot students who died unexpectedly as the paper was being written. Robert's courage inspired us all.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

THE ROLE OF ADULT EDUCATION IN THE NEW WORLD ORDER: A PERSPECTIVE FROM THE SOUTH

Derek C. Mulenga

ABSTRACT

This paper examines the role of adult education in the New Economic World Order. It examines the notions of empowerment and emancipations that are central to the theory and practice of the role of adult education and argues that both concepts are contested and remain abstract unless mapped into the context of New World Order. It also identifies the main characteristics of the new world order that we currently face. These include the deregulation of international finance and the rise of transnational corporations. Two widely divergent possible (or actual) approaches to adult education are compared in the face of these recent global developments. Adult educators can play a vital role in strengthening and mobilizing civil society and social movements globally. Specifically, adult educators must become more active in articulating "alternative" ways of viewing and thinking about the new world order as well as critically examining the prevailing attitudes and values within civil societies themselves.

INTRODUCTION

In *A Pedagogy for Liberation*, Freire and Shor (1987) point out that that [adult] education is neither a neutral process nor does it take place in a vacuum. Within this context, two main perspectives are traditionally identified. The conservative perspective argues that the main purpose of adult education in society is to maintain the social fabric and reproduce existing social relations, while the radical perspective suggests that adult education should promote democratic social transformation aimed at bringing about social and economic justice. While these social purposes of adult education are acknowledged, there are few critical analyses of the role of adult education in the wider global context. The purpose of this paper is to clarify this global problematic that faces adult education, particularly in light of recent significant developments at the global level, developments that can be bunched together under the catch-all phrase "new world order."

UNDERSTANDING EMPOWERMENT AND ADULT EDUCATION

Freire and Shor's (1987) statement concerning the fallacy of neutral education places relationships of power directly at the center of adult education practices. This is no more apparent than when the notion of empowerment is examined closely. Zacharakis-Jutz (1988) argues that two opposing views of empowerment exist: giving of power or the taking of power. The former suggests that someone is bestowing power on someone else, while the latter implies that the individual is *actively* engaged in confrontation. Empowerment as the giving of power does not involve social transformation, while empowerment as the taking of power does.

Inglis (1992) points out that a distinction should be made between empowerment and *emancipation*. He believes that the traditional notion of "empowerment as collective transformation" has been replaced by a more conservative notion of individual improvement. Inglis suggests that the term empowerment should be used to "describe the role education plays in enabling people to operate effectively within the existing structures of power," while the term emancipation should be used to refer to "the role education can play in helping people to reflect critically and struggle against the existing structures."

It is apparent that this debate takes place within a wider ideological dispute concerning the role of adult education in society. The purpose of this paper, however, is to take this debate and apply it to the global context as a means of framing the roles that adult education could adopt in the face of the new world order.

NATURE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE NEW WORLD ORDER

The fall of the Berlin wall and the end of the cold war in 1989 signified a massive upheaval in the political make-up of the globe. Although most commentators are quick to tell us that significant changes have occured in the arena of economic and societal systems, the causes and future development of these changes are much more difficult to pin down. Barnett and Cavanagh (1994) provide a summary of the most significant manifestations of the global economy. These include: emergence of oligopolies, internationalization of the division of labor, creation of vast money flows not primarily directed at trade and rapid changes in trading and investment patterns.

In order to understand the present international economic situation, it is necessary to return to the early 1970s. There were three major developments that paved the way for the transition to the present global economy. These were 1) the collapse of the Bretton Woods Fixed Exchange Rate System; 2) the oil-crisis of 1973-74; and 3) the information-telecommunications revolution. According to Chomsky (1994), these three developments combined allowed for the rapid expansion of international capital markets, a qualitatively different world-economy referred to as "global capitalism." In the context of this paper, the two most important developments within this arena of global capitalism which are directly related to the changes of the early 1970s, are, first of all, the deregulation of international finance, and secondly, the rise of transnational corporations mentioned previously.

The breakdown of regulatory structures that accompanies the collapse of the Bretton Woods Fixed Exchange Rate System brought about a radical shift of capital from productive investment and trade to speculation (Chomsky, 1994). Secondly, since the 1970s, transnational corporations (TNCs) have emerged as extremely powerful actors with very huge profits and capital resources. It is not, however, only the profits produced by TNCs that provides them with a massive source of world power, but also the internationalization of production that has accompanied their rise. With the de-regulating of international capital, and the opening up of world markets and labor forces that accompanied it, TNCs have been able to pick and choose their production sites. In this way, TNCs are invested with both economic and political power, providing them with a position that is increasingly becoming unequalled on the world stage.

COPING WITH THE NEW WORLD ORDER

Faced with the new world order described above, what roles can be ascribed to adult education? One role that adult education can fulfill is that of an empowering agent, facilitating adaptation to the global economy. This process can refer to individuals, communities, or whole nation-states. Already, there have appeared writings which call for this empowering process to begin in relation to formal education systems. Indeed, there are different kinds of ideological bedfellows that adult educators may be associated with when adopting such an empowerment approach in reaction to the new world order, ranging from conservatives to reformists, who, although having divergent interests, have a great deal in common. The conservative reaction to the new world order can be said to comprise a mixture of fear and calculated self-interest. Fear is often expressed in the form of dire consequences for the "political and economic" interests of the economy. For Choate and Unger (1988), this combination of fear and self-interest also drives their analysis of the global economy, this time focussing specifically on the distribution of technological knowledge;

> The United States is woefully unprepared to protect the intellectual property rights of its citizens and firms in the global market-place. There is no overall policy on scientific and technological exchange with other nations and little protection for U.S. inventors and firms against the sale or use in the U.S. of foreign goods made with expropriated technology. (p. 30)

Fear and self-interest, seem to be common themes that have arisen in the literature concerning the role of the United States as a declining world power (see also Snow, 1993; Wright & McManus, 1991). At the same time, it is hard to imagine the majority of adult educators, committed as they are to some form of equality, aligning themselves with an explicitly conservative agenda.

While still operating within the general scheme of empowering adult education, it is more likely that these adult educators would take a more "reformist" stance to the new world order problematic, a stance, for example, along the lines of the type of development proposed by the Brundtland Report (WCED, 1987), and the type of education proposed by the World Conference on Education For All, held in Jomtien, Thailand, March, 1990.

Regardless of their concerns with the environment and education, however, both the Brundtland Commission and the EFA commission have, as their main and overriding priority, *economic growth*. Both of these commissions see themselves as empowering third-world communities and societies so that they can successfully adapt to the massive changes that have taken place in the global economy. In a very real sense, these types of reformist programmes are no different in their motivational makeup from the conservative response to the new world order. Both are fuelled by a fear and self-interest in their quest to find a niche in the new world of international capital. The belief that "in the next millenium, humanity's fate will be shaped by a new set of winners and losers" (Attali, 1991, p. 30) is the driving force behind this desire for forceful economic growth. There is an alternative that involves placing quality of life before profits, a commitment with radically different implications for the future of the planet, and for the role of adult education.

CHALLENGING THE NEW WORLD ORDER

If adult education is to have a role in the struggle against the existing world order, it must have a basis on which to make the claim that the new world order is destructive. In order to do this, a fundamental claim must be made to the effect that the increasing expansion of international economic capital is detrimental to human and natural life. Ekins (1992) contributes significantly to this claim by pointing to the massive contradiction inherent in the notion that economic progress equals human progress:

> You cannot both poison and save the environment, you cannot simultaneously empower the people and the multi-national companies (read TNCs), you cannot combine local self-reliance with the primacy of global "free" trade. (p. viii)

As a critique, this statement could possibly stand by itself as a testament to the inadequacy of empowering adult education in the face of global economic power. In order to expand on, and clarify the argument underlying Ekin's assertion, a closer examination of the machinations of the new world order is needed.

When assessing the Brundtland report, two issues come to the fore. First, the concept of sustainable development is, in its very nature, a Northern, or more precisely, a Western concept. Boxhill (1994) argues that

> By talking about issues in global terms these nations assume a certain universality of processes and values, that invariably are northern and Western in orientation. In so doing, they impose their definition of the situation which provides the basis for policy making from their perspective--policy making that is often disadvantageous to developing nations. (p. 5)

This manifestation of economic imperialism makes sense when put in the context of the Brundtland report (WCED, 1987), which, while outlining the social and environmental problems facing the planet and its population, lacks any sustained analysis of the root causes of these problems. Their panacea for these problems, in the form of sustainable economic growth, highlights their total disregard to the intrinsic relation, and thus in the contradiction, among economic growth, the destruction of the environment, and the quality of life of people.

Threats to the environment, of course, have been a cause for concern before the establishment of the present world order. However, what is often intentionally grossed over is the fact that these threats were caused by globally powerful institutions like multinational corporations and multinational development banks like the World Bank, which reach every city, village, field, and forest through worldwide operations (Shiva, 1993). The problem, however, is that this view has been turned on its head, with environmental concerns being used to strengthen the hold of international capital, rather than to transform it. In fact, the language of the environment is now been taken over and being made the reason for a strengthening of "global" institutions like the World Bank, and increasing their global reach. Because of this, the ambivalence on the part of the Brundtland Commission concerning the causes of environmental problems more than likely contributes to these problems rather than facilitating the development of a long-term solution.

In the case of the *Education For All initiative*, the panacea for the problems faced by the South is also economic progress, but with an explicit role given to education in this development. As Moralez-Gomez and Torres (1990) point out, however, this education for all is designed to empower, rather than emancipate, in reaction to changes in the world order:

> An underlying assumption (of EFA) is that the EFA is to enhance the skills of the poor, less educated and marginalized populations to survive in a more competitive market economy in the 1990s. . . . Education For All is not in practice geared towards strengthening economic or political empowerment of individuals, or to alter the position of developing nations in the continuing world technological imbalance. (p. 12)

The underlying assumption of the EFA described here accurately depicts the assumption that underlies empowerment type education. When placed within the context of transnational corporations and deregulated international finance, however, this assumption spells disaster, particularly for South.

THE NEW WORLD ORDER AS IDEOLOGY

While it is important to understand the new world order as a complex of economic forces born of the crisis of the mid-1970s, it is critical to recognize that these forces have been sustained by an all-embracing ideology in which TNCs, banks, and multilateral institutions, principal agents in the new world order, henceforth presented themselves (and after a time were perceived by many governments and academic theorists) as primary agents of economic development. The ascendacy of neoliberal economic thinking in the early 1980s spurned appropriate global economic and trade policies that promoted and sustained the economic forces that were regarded as inevitable. In short, the principles of free market, free trade and free enterprise stand now as articles of faith. Capitalism is portrayed as the natural order that must be preserved for humankind to prosper and survive.

In the South, the ideology of neoliberalism (under the guise of "structural adjustment programs," "democracy" and "good governance" policies) has been imposed by agencies such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). There is overwhelming evidence that these policies have resulted in "exclusion and anarchy, particularly in Africa." As Hoogvelt (1997) concludes:

> Globalization, including structural adjustments imposed in the 1980s, has overwhelmed the fragile social and political orders while further peripheralizing their economies. The combined outcome of these external and internal forces manifests itself in a zone of civil collapse, anarchy and instability on the edge of the global system. (p. 241)

Brecher, Childs, and Cutler (1993) also point out that the new world order may have temporarily brought about economic prosperity for the North (at least parts of it) but it has delivered worldwide impoverishment and a growing polarization between the rich North and poor South. Finally, Sassen (1993) concludes that

The developments of the 1980s represent a massive assault on working-class people. This assault is evident in objective conditions: the decline in earnings among the lower third or even bottom half of the earnings distribution in most major developed economies; the declining power of unions; the expulsion of growing numbers from the "mainstream economy." (p. 65)

RESPONSES AND CHALLENGES

It is clear that the new world order has failed at what it is supposed to do best: create wealth for the world. With this in mind, what can adult education do? Here I propose to outline some key responses and challenges.

First, there are those who argue that the nature of *new social movements* provides an arena in which some form of resistance or alternative to the onslaught of globalization (as a form of modernity) can take shape. Finger (1989) and Welton (1993) specifically examine the potential of new social movements as sites of change in which adult education can play a major part. Finger, for instance, values the new social movements as learning sites where an adult learner can question and challenge modernity. In other words, the person will inevitably have an impact on the wider social and political context. The main problem is that agency is achieved through *the person* rather than articulating a collective agenda geared towards changing the existing *social order*. While there is a lot to be said for this approach of valuing each person's choice to engage modernity, it is lacking. In order to really challenge the new world economic order, we need ground our responses in a broader vision of civil society.

The message disseminated by the ideologues of the new world order is that anyone who does not adjust to it will perish. We must rebel against this way of thinking. The first response to new world order is to acknowledge that we produced it. It is not a monster to rule over us, but a human invention, with its limitations and possibilities like our own life condition.

We must use a different approach to think about the new world order, taking alternative models into consideration. For this, the conventional hegemonic way of thinking dictated by neo-liberalism and by "free market" consensus is not very helpful. It is necessary that we build our own agenda, our own way of viewing issues and tasks, our own priorities. Other approaches and proposals cannot be ignored, but we shouldnot be limited to them. They should be confronted!

As I have shown above, dominant forms of the new world order are powered by an unrestrained drive to maximize profits. Such globalization entails huge economic instability and political and social crises. We need to look at *other* globalizations. We need to put forward globalization alternatives that could subject the market and state power to world peoples' demands. Because our localized action can have substantial global impact, global dynamics--operating outside our control--redefines the possibilities and limits of what we do at a local level. More than ever we must "think globally and act locally."

We must acknowledge that civil society's most strategic and fundamental response to the new world order is to reinvent itself. Cultural change within civil society is an indispensable condition for changing the economy and markets, as well as power and state. We must build the capacity to identify issues, formulate proposals, and mobilize. Raising awareness, public debate, and concrete action against corporations and governments has created the possibility of re-thinking the development model itself. Civil societies must view themselves in the framework of the new world order, enabling each inhabitant to think about himself or herself as a member of the same planet earth. This is a greater task than would appear at first sight.

There is no denying the importance of the state, governments and their policies, nor corporations' social responsibility. However, we seek the catapult for change that comes from citizens changing their attitudes when confronted with this issue. They can, in a sovereign way and without asking anyone's opinion, invent, take initiatives, organize decentralized committees - without duplicating models. They can mobilize forces and resources, promote partnerships, and contribute their share. Such actions create the atmosphere for a political and cultural movement favoring change.

Neo-liberal thought is authoritarian and technocratic, prioritizing the economy to the detriment of politics and culture. Humankind had to struggle and suffer to identify and uphold values and rights whose central role is now negated by this narrow-minded utilitarianism. To see beyond the neo-liberal wave and re-affirm the primacy of ethics and human beings is one of the greatest challenges for humanists and democrats on the threshold of the 21st Century.

Forging another kind of new world order within civil society is possible. To do that the primacy of the ethical principles constituting democracy must be re-affirmed: equality, freedom, participation, human diversity, and solidarity. They are capable of touching the hearts and minds of civil society's different groups and sectors. These principles should regulate power and market and be upheld and practiced. The priority task is to counter pose a deepening process of global democracy and of planetary-scale cultural change to worldwide neo-liberal disorder.

A POSSIBLE STRATEGY FOR THE CIVIL SOCIETY?

Having argued that we can challenge the new world order, a strategy for the civil society can be discussed. First, we must critically examine our ways of viewing and thinking about the prevailing attitudes and values within civil societies themselves concerning the new world order. Perceptions and proposals of different civic groups, their movements and large mobilizations must be forged in political and cultural confrontation and through action and public debate. To get the other side of the proposal to work--pressure, lobbying, and demands on governments, multilateral agencies and corporations--it is necessary to create a favorable atmosphere for linkages and networks within civil society, at both the national and international level. Finally, we must free ourselves from narrow national and local outlooks and from the hegemony of governments, multilateral agencies, large corporations and finance capital. Although we do not avoid this arena of struggle, the possibility of our intervention at this level does not only depend on competence and creativity. Above all, political action to confront the power system and the market for a democratic new world order presupposes strengthening our civil societies. Our challenge is to combine both poles. Indeed as Elgin (1997) reminds us, "Perhaps the most basic challenge humanity faces is to awaken our capacity for collective knowing and conscious action so that we can respond successfully to the immense social and ecological difficulties that now confront us" (p. 2).

REFERENCES

Attali, J. (1991). *Millennium: Winners and losers in the coming world order.* New York: Random House.

Barnet, R., & Cavanagh, J. (1994). *Global dreams: Imperial corporations and the New World Order.* New York: Simon and Schuster.

Boxhill, I. (1994). Globalization, sustainable development, and postmodernism: The new ideology of imperialism. *Humanity and Society, 18*(4), 3-18

Brecher, J., Childs, J., & Cutler, J. (1993). *Global visions: Beyond the New World Order.* Boston: South End Press.

Choate, P., & Unger, J. (1988). Meeting the technology challenge: Toward a U. S. agenda. In J. Yochelson (Ed.), *Keeping pace: U. S. policies and global economic change* (pp. 19-32). Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.

Chomsky, N. (1994). *World orders old and new.* New York: Columbia University Press.

Ekins, P. (1992). *A new world order: Grassroots movements for global change.* London: Routledge.

Elgin, C. (1997). *Between the absolute and the arbitrary.* Ithaca: Cornell University Press.

Finger, M. (1989). New social movements and their implications for adult education. *Adult Education Quarterly, 40*, 15-22.

Freire, P. (1972). *Pedagogy of the oppressed.* New York: Continuum.

Hoogvelt, A. (1997). *Globalization and the postcolonial world: The new political economy of development.* Baltimore MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Inglis, T. (1992, July). *Learning about power, empowerment, and emancipation.* Seminar paper presented at University College, Dublin, UK.

Moralez-Gomez, D., & Torres, C. (1990). Education for all: Prospects and implication for Latin America in the 1990s. *New Education, 12*(2), 7-15.

Sassen, S. (1993). Economic globalization: A new Geography, composition, and institutional framework. In J. Brecher, J. Childs, & J. Cutler (Eds.), *Global visions: Beyond the new world order* (pp. 61-66). Boston: South End Press.

Shiva, V. (1993). The greening of the global reach. J. Brecher., J. B. Childs, & J. Cutler (Eds.), *Global visions: Beyond the new world order* (pp. 53-60). Boston: South End Press.

Snow, D. (1993). *Distant thunder: Third World conflict and the new international order.* New York: St. Martin's Press.

Shor, L., & Freire, P. (1987). *A pedagogy for liberation: Dialogues on transforming education.* South Hadley, MA: Bergin and Garvey.

World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED). (1987). *Our common future.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Welton, M. (1993). Social revolutionary learning: The new social movements as learning sites. *Adult Education Quarterly, 43*, 152-164

Wright, R., & MacManus, D. (1991). *Flashpoints: Promise and peril in a New World Order.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf.

Zacharakis-Jutz, J. (1988). Post-Freirean adult education: A question of empowerment and power. *Adult Education Quarterly. 39*, 41-47.

Derek C. Mulenga, Penn State University, 310C Keller Building, University Park, PA 16801
dcm10@psu.edu

Presented at Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

WHY THEY COME: AN EXPLORATION INTO RETENTION AND MOTIVATION IN AN ADULT ESL PROGRAM

Thomas Nowalk

Irregular attendance in my adult ESL classes lead to problems in class management. Though the classes had high numbers of enrolled students, only 5% of the students arrived on a regular basis. I then started a practitioner research project to determine why students came to the class, to identify means for attracting the other learners to attend more often. Data collection included participant observation, focus groups, class documents, and teacher designed tasks. The results demonstrated how motivation worked at both a personal and social level. Participation in class is often determined by how adults participate in the local community. Concerns related to work, further study, and family priorities often draw learners away from classes. Attracting them back often requires teachers to perform more than their standard instructional role.

BACKGROUND

My practitioner research project has focused on an ESL program in Southwestern Virginia. The classes are held in a university town that has a large number of international students and their families. The majority of students are related to children or student spouses attending the university. Some come as refugees while others are immigrants to the United States. The program features open enrollment throughout the school year.

My ESL program has seen record enrollment for the 1998-1999 school year. A low-intermediate class and an advanced class make up our small program, and combined enrollment in these two classes has soared to 194 students. Though the large classes are sometimes difficult to manage for a single teacher, they speak of the effectiveness of my classes.

High enrollment tells only part of the story, however. Nine advanced students make up 44% of the total attendance hours for that class. While average attendance is 18 hours, 3 of those 9 students attended over 100 hours. Six of the same students who attended the advanced class do the same for the lower intermediate class, making up 30% of the total student attendance hours for that class. In short, many of the same students show up regularly in both classes. Of the 194 students enrolled for this year, 9 regulars in the advanced class and 6 in the low-intermediate class made up the bulk of attendance. As the same people attended both classes, we may say that 9 regular students out of a total of 194, or 5%, have carried the greater portion of attendance.

The purpose of this research was to identify what motivated students to attend class. I sought to identify what attracted students to the class, so that I could then determine what measures the program could take to increase the 5%. Toward reaching this goal, I set the following research questions:

- Why, from the perspective of the students, do people attend class or not?
- What keeps them coming back?

In short, I wanted to see from the students' perspective what was attractive or not attractive about the classes.

DATA COLLECTION

Qualitative researchers work with words and this study was no exception. Over five months of participant observation was conducted in both classes. Field observations of the classroom were recorded in anecdotal form, including quotations of student comments. Besides field notes, two focus groups were held with a mix of volunteers from both classes. Two participants in the focus groups were learners who had since dropped out of the program. Transcriptions of each taped session were included as part of the data. A third source of information resulted from student responses to class tasks designed by the teacher. The tasks included ten activities in which students completed a procedure for each activity: naming items, writing dictation responses, completing partial sentences. I further examined class documents such as surveys conducted in past classes and the entrance sheets that students filled out as part of class registration. In short, I examined class documents, focus group transcripts, and observations of students engaged in or talking about class activities.

Except for the field notes, all data collection relied on students' perspectives. Some field notes included comments from non-students: a literacy volunteer who observed a class; an uncle who sent a nephew to the class; an office manager who supports the program; a colleague who tutors ESL students; and some students who had dropped the class. As these individuals were in contact with people who observed program classes or had participated in the class, they provided information that was not usually accessible to me as teacher. Some of the informants, such as the colleague who tutors, regularly work with students from my program. For this reason, I included their perspectives with the students.

Analysis of the wording collected took two steps: transcribing the material on to index cards and then sorting the cards into general themes. Each card included data in one of four forms: a single quotation from an informant; a single student comment of one to five sentences addressing a single topic; a written comment produced from a student document; or a line or two from the transcript addressing a single topic (a transcript quote). Cards were sorted into general themes; all data sources were pooled together to see what themes cut across them. What follows are the general themes that emerged from the data analysis.

FINDINGS

The adult learners in our ESL program, like other adult learners, bring to class needs that they expect to see met through instruction, yet, at the same time, those needs conflict with a number of competing demands in their lives. Students highlighted these conflicts during the focus group sessions, and repeated them during class tasks and class activities recorded in the field notes.

Needs were typically expressed as linguistic skills: grammar; pronunciation; and vocabulary. Students perceive these needs in response to pressures at work and in university classrooms. Some also want help preparing for standardized tests such as the TOEFL or the GRE. Perhaps the strongest need is that for practice. Students want to practice communicating thought or meaning in English. Students look for genuine opportunities to use English consistent with American usage or customs. They want the classroom to provide such opportunities. For some, the instructor is one of the few Americans that they regularly talk to.

Student conflicts include different life activities or circumstances that interrupt attendance. Some conflicts involve family issues such as pregnancy or childcare. Others involve personal issues such as illness or simply having no desire to attend class. Other personal conflicts may be travel, moving, or holiday activities. There are also practical conflicts such as transportation or snow days. The class schedule deters many from attending, too. Other ESL programs either create more scheduling conflicts or pull some students away from attending.

Needs and conflicts are personal. They relate to the individual student's effort to act on his or her needs within the context of many competing demands. But the individual acts on those efforts within the classroom which is a social system. Interaction with the culture of the classroom, the particular classroom with its instructor, resources, and personalities, affects attendance, too.

According to student comments in class and during the focus group sessions, some aspects of the classroom culture attract students. What one student called "the mood of the class" is an important part of this, including the teacher's personality and students' general relationships with each other. The reputation of the class and the fact that it is free further attracts students. Students also noted the teacher's ability to coordinate with other public services such as Literacy Volunteers; the frequency of the class meetings; and particular instructional topics. Some class tasks also suggest that the teacher's methodology, such as group work or practicing short question-answer dialogs, attracts students.

There are aspects of the classroom culture, though, that deter some students. The open enrollment of the class with its mixed levels and overcrowding deterred some. A lack of textbooks and materials and even insufficient lighting in the classroom were pointed out in both the focus groups and the end-of-year survey. Instruction can also deter students. Unclear instructions on the part of the teacher, discomfort with participating in certain kinds of activities, and problems with comprehending in general, affected some students. The presence of dominating students who were more assertive than others, or the presence of certain groups of students who often spoke in their native language, made participation for some students difficult. Students usually pointed out these difficulties in class or after class, as recorded in the field notes.

To sum up, students feel pressure to learn certain language skills, particularly the skill to communicate meaning to Americans. But competing with this are other pressures in their lives that draw them away from the class. The culture of classroom, the personality of the teacher and the kinds of instructional efforts and topics presented, all may pull students to the class if the classroom climate is welcoming and friendly. That the class is free further attracts learners.

CONCLUSIONS

Adult learners live lives. They participate in an ESL class with one key goal: to learn language as a means to participate more easily in American life. They want to participate in class in order to participate fully in the lives they lead.

My role as an ESL teacher, from this perspective, is often as a resource. Students want me to provide them with topics, expressions, and practice. I am expected to provide a variety of all three, with greater frequency than I have provided before. My adult learners see participation in life as competency in all three and they tend to judge their performance in the three according to traditional linguistic skills such as vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. What attracts many to my class is what they get from me as a resource -- the chance to practice; the chance to learn a variety of topics; and the chance to learn how the topics are used in conversation. This is why, for example, phrasal verbs rank as important to so many of my students. They see phrasal verbs as one way to speak American.

In terms of improving attendance, this research study points to the importance of variety and frequency. Students want to cover a number of topics more frequently. They want competency in talking about certain subjects. And they want to have frequent opportunities to talk about the same topics but in different ways. This may suggest the need for including different texts. A Japanese student, during a focus group, talked about how useful it was to practice operations such as talking about how to put on clothing and tying shoes. Other students described the usefulness of other texts such as comparisons and narratives. It may be helpful, then, to practice with a variety of texts on a variety of topics. The issue of frequency further points to memory, which is a common complaint among students. For many, memory of what was learned in class easily slips away. But frequent practice opportunities may help with reinforcing memory. Summing up here, I believe that different kinds of texts, from narratives to dialogues and from comparisons to operations, with a variety of topics and expressions, practiced frequently over a number of classes, may attract more students.

Participation refers to placement, too. Throughout the data, the condition of having open enrollment with mixed levels of students was not preferred. Some students felt intimidated by higher level students. Other students felt uncomfortable working with lower level students. The data suggest that instruction will work better in the future if students participate according to their proficiency levels. Finding the balance between not overwhelming part of the class while at the same time challenging the other part, has not always been achieved. The loss of students at the highest and lowest levels of proficiency indicates that my program needs to work more on placement.

I see my role here, though, as more than a resource; I also see my role as an editor. My students want frequent feedback on their performance. They want to have clear criteria on their performance spelled out in a manner that allows them to judge for themselves. They want to know what works and what does not. Unclear directions on my part when assigning a class activity often lead students to creating criteria for themselves. In the future, classes should pay as much attention to performance criteria as to class goals. If students are to participate, they need to know the desired end and how they can judge if they have reached such an end effectively. It may help my class planning to focus more on ends, criteria, and activities.

Finally, I am also reminded that as an adult educator, there are some circumstances that are beyond my intervention. I have listed a number of points on how I plan to improve the classroom, which is where I have influence on my learners. There are instances, however, where my role as adult educator leads me to a spectator role, as conflicts ranging from bad weather to pregnancy, work schedules, or university level classes, distract my students from attending. It is quite possible that by enhancing my role as resource and editor, I may be less afflicted by the difficulties of spectator. Ultimately, what matters is how I perform these roles in a classroom culture that is non-threatening. As my students suggest here, attendance relies as much on the class mood as with class activities. Students want to participate to satisfy their needs without the pressure found outside the classroom. It is the personality of the teacher, too, that attracts students to class. Teacher personality and instruction work as the agent of that mood, competing with the many demands adult learners face living their lives.

Thomas Nowalk, Ph.D., 11900-G Cardinal Court NW, Blacksburg, VA 24060

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

THE COMMUNITY LIFE TASK FORCE AS AN INFORMAL COMMUNITY-BASED ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM: A CONTINUA OF CRITICAL REFLECTION, DIALOGUE, AND PRAXIS

Thomas E. Oblender
Daniele D. Flannery
Andrea D. Ellinger
Colleen Willard-Holt

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to understand the meaning of community for thirteen members of the Community Life Task Force (CLTF) and to explore if, and the extent to which, this group engaged in critical reflection, dialogue, and praxis as advocated by Freire (1970, 1973, 1993, 1994), Freire and Macedo (1995), and Horton (Adams, 1975). This informal community group formed within a suburban Pennsylvania community to address the problem of domestic abuse. A qualitative case study design was employed for this research. In-depth, semi-structured interviews, participant observation, and artifact analysis were the primary methods of data collection. Thematic coding and within-case and cross-case analyses were the methods of data analysis. Data and investigator triangulation were used throughout the study to ensure credibility, dependability, and confirmability. The major findings of this study included: the CLTF member's notions about the meaning and dimensionality of community, the voluntary group, and the emergence of continua of critical reflection, dialogue, and praxis. These continua, and the focus of this paper, reflects findings that are somewhat different from Freire's and Horton's notions of critical reflection, dialogue, and praxis. The purposeful nature of this sample, and the community context, however, do not permit generalizability. Implications for practice and further research are presented.

INTRODUCTION

Community-based interventions are often implemented by communities who attempt to develop different strategies for addressing problems and concerns of their adult and child residents. Such community efforts can be perceived as a non-traditional, informal community-based adult education group. In one suburban Pennsylvania community, a voluntary group of concerned citizens came together to discuss problems that existed within their community, specifically the problem of domestic abuse. This group, the Community Life Task Force (CLTF) became the focus of this research. Specifically, this study sought to examine the meaning of community for thirteen members of the CLTF, and to explore if, and the extent to which this group engaged in critical reflection, dialogue, and praxis as advocated by Freire (1970, 1973, 1993, 1994, 1995) and Horton (in Adams, 1975.)

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The theoretical lens for this study included literature from three areas: critical reflection, dialogue, and praxis.

CRITICAL REFLECTION

Broadly speaking, critical reflection is where the individual "makes sense of the world" (Horton, as cited in Bell, Gaventa, & Peters, 1990). The literature is clear that adult learners practice critical reflection in a variety of ways. Freire (1970, 1973, 1993, 1994) and Freire and Macedo (1995) acknowledge that individuals possess a natural inclination to want to learn about their world with the expressed purpose of transforming it. Central to this study is Freire's notion that as individuals transform their worlds, they need to understand what is happening around and to reflect critically about their lives. Critical reflection can be looked at from three perspectives. The first, and often used perspective, refers to people's capacity to reflect on what they are about to do, or before taking action in situations that are new, or that they do not understand. The second perspective includes the notion of learners situating themselves in their own socio-cultural history and influences, coming to recognize their culturally-induced dependency, roles and relationships, the reasons for them, and the needed action to overcome them (Mezirow, I981). Mezirow distinguished between two aspects of this notion of critical reflection. "Meaning perspective" refers to the structure of psycho-cultural assumptions within which new experience is assimilated and transformed by one's past experience. "Perspective transformation," an emancipatory process, is a process of "becoming critically aware of how and why the structure of psycho-cultural assumptions has come to constrain the way we see ourselves and our relationships, reconstituting them to permit a more inclusive and discriminating integration of experience and acting upon these new understandings" (Mezirow, I981, p. 6). The third perspective, building upon that of the second, requires a theory of transformative action, which assigns people a fundamental role in their own transformation process. Here oppressed and disenfranchised peoples can, in Horton's (as cited in Bell et al., 1990) view, liberate themselves from oppression by addressing and solving their own problems through critical reflection. No matter how ignorant or submerged in the culture of silence, people can become critically aware of the realities of their lives and they perceive the reality of their oppression "not as a closed world from which there is no exit, but as a limiting situation which they can transform" (Freire, 1970, p. 31). Freire argued that a serious process of social transformation requires people to participate in the producing of new knowledge so they can reelaborate and reorder their own knowledge to obtain additional knowledge. According to Gadotti (1994), "The knowledge that is most important for the liberation of the oppressed is that of gaining awareness of their own situation of being oppressed, which is seen in the political oppression and the economic exploitation which they live under" (p. 56).

DIALOGUE

Once critical reflection has occurred, the individual often seeks out others to share, learn, and understand. This collaboration is known as dialogue. Candy (1989) wrote that from the time of their birth, people embark on a continuing voyage of inquiry and exploration and pursue their goals by selectively interacting with others and by creating or adapting models of reality which guide their actions. Ideally, people engage in dialogue as equal partners to express their voices and through this dialogue, identify and solve their problems in a relationship characterized by equality and respect. Thus, part of dialogue is making a commitment to another person. Dialogue is an act of creation and must not serve as an instrument for the domination of one person by another. Freire (as cited in Bell et al., 1990) said, "I cannot fight for a freer society if at the same time I don't respect the knowledge of the people" (p. 101). Respect also means that the beliefs of the people have to be valued, that they must be consulted and that the starting point for the process of their education must be from their letters and words. Therefore, dialogue becomes a horizontal relationship of which mutual trust between the individuals in dialogue is the logical consequence. Trust leads these people into closer partnership in the naming of the world. Finally, dialogue cannot exist without hope, because people start in a state of incompletion, but through their hope, move out in constant search in communion with others. hooks (1994) stressed two principles of dialogue. First, there must be place for a multiplicity of experiences; different contexts demand different voices (Freire, 1985; Bell et al., 1990). Second, dialogue avoids fixed and absolute ways of constructing reality. For hooks (1994), in dialogue there is uniqueness of each voice and valuing each person's presence. There are no oppressors or oppressed; power and resources are shared. Dialogue is a horizontal relationship, based on love, humility, hope, faith, and confidence. For Horton, an important aspect of dialogue was listening. He saw a role for himself in changing society by becoming convinced that people know what they need to learn, if only he could listen to them, learn from them, and "get behind the common judgments of the poor, help them learn to act and speak for themselves, help them gain control over decisions affecting their daily lives" (as cited in Adams, I975, p. 24). Freire believed that the essence of dialogue is the true word, which contains the two dimensions of reflection and action, or praxis. By speaking the true word, one transforms the world through dialogue. If people participate in the constructing of their social realities, they use their voices to engage in a communication or dialogue with others. With their voices, they begin to speak about themselves and their conditions and what they want as people. They come to believe that what they have to say is valuable and that others will value their contributions and listen to what they have to say. In summary, Freire, Horton, and hooks agree that dialogue as an epistemological perspective requires a political and ideological analysis and is to be understood within a social praxis that entails both reflection and political action and is a way of knowing. The moment of the dialogue is the moment when people meet to transform reality and progress toward improving their lives. In this view, dialogue is an indispensable component of the process of both learning and knowing.

PRAXIS

Freire (1970, 1973, 1994; Freire & Macedo; 1995) stated that human activity consists of action and reflection, or praxis, which leads to an individual's or group's transformation of the world. Horton (as cited in Bell et al., 1990), stressing the importance of people engaging in praxis, said people need to figure out ways to take over their own lives. Praxis can take place in many ways. Freire (1970, 1973, 1994; Freire & Macedo, 1995) advocated a critical intervention to explain to people their own action in an effort to clarify and illuminate that action. He opposed passive school concepts, and developed culture circles where teachers became coordinators, lecturers became dialoguers, pupils became participants, and the alienating syllabi was broken down and codified into learning units. Freire advocated empowering learners to identify, discuss, and act upon their problems, and believed that a peasant can facilitate this process for a neighbor more effectively than an outside teacher. He said, "The more the people become themselves, the better the democracy" (Bell et al., 1990, p. 145). Horton (as cited in Adams, 1975) believed that education should be based on the nature of people's lives, not what others want those lives to be. It should recognize the fundamental ways that people live and change as those ways change. He believed that it is important to make theories real, and to have learners get involved with the learning and find solutions to their own problems. "The sooner the poor were trusted to develop and express their own ideas--their own creative ideas--the sooner America would begin to achieve the end of social structure that could end poverty and racial prejudice, set aside exploitation and the reasons for war" (Horton, as cited in Adams, 1975, p. 24). Cunningham (1988) wrote that social change can occur when adult educators assist individuals in creating, disseminating, legitimating, and celebrating their own knowledge, including cultural knowledge. Collins (1990) recommended the forming of Black female spheres of influence which would result in "potential sanctuaries where individual Black women and men are nurtured in order to confront oppressive social institutions" (p. 223). The goal should be one of activism where individuals can achieve ownership and accountability. hooks (1994), in telling her own story, wrote, "As I worked to create teaching strategies that would make a space for multicultural learning, I found it necessary to recognize different 'cultural codes.' To teach effectively a diverse student body, I have to learn these codes. And so do students. This act alone transforms the classroom" (p. 41). In closing, Collins (1990), an Afrocentric feminist, believes that individual responsibility and empowerment are the key for bringing about change, but only collective action can effectively generate lasting social transformation of political and economic institutions.

METHODOLOGY

Freire's (1970, 1973, 1993, 1994; Freire & Macedo, 1995) concepts of critical reflection, dialogue, and praxis provided the theoretical underpinning for this study. A qualitative case study design was employed to explore the meaning of community for the thirteen members of the CLTF, and to determine if, and the extent to which critical reflection, dialogue, and praxis occurred as this community group endeavored to address the problem of domestic abuse within their community. The CLTF was examined within its real-life context and multiple sources of data were used (Yin, 1989). Semi-structured, open-ended in-depth interviews with the members of the CLTF, participant observations, and artifact analysis were the primary means to collect the data for this case study (Patton, 1990). Participant observations included the committee's meetings, and artifact analysis included the committee's meeting minutes, a video produced by the committee, and written documents prepared by the committee. The artifactual data was analyzed to determine the history of the organization, the members who participated in the decision-making, the planning that was conducted, the products that were produced, and the actions that the group decided upon. These documents also served as a guide during the in-depth interviews and direct observation. Thematic analysis and within-case and cross-case analyses were the primary methods of data analysis. Data and investigator triangulation were used throughout the study to ensure credibility, dependability, and confirmability. Specifically, colleagues examined the data and verified the analyses of the interviews, and the primary researcher constantly searched for negative instances and rival hypotheses (Marshall & Rossman, 1995). Member checks and informal interviews were conducted with some of the participants in which they were asked to validate, refute, or clarify their comments. The findings from this study, however, are not intended to be generalizable because that is not the purpose of a qualitative case study.

FINDINGS

Due to page constraints, the more descriptive findings for critical reflection, dialogue, and praxis have been omitted.

FINDINGS IN RELATION TO THE RESEARCH ON CRITICAL REFLECTION

The CLTF members engaged in seeking their perspectives, although not critical perspectives, by questioning present situations, examining assumptions, challenging current ways of viewing the world, and analyzing knowledge and their present ways of knowing (Apps, 1985). They strove to self-construct and reconstruct their circumstances through the application of their personal world view. The CLTF members' critical reflection and self-directed learning activities were not divorced from their immediate social context, but were removed from a larger social context. For the CLTF participants, the concept of identifying a critical or epistemological perspective was not practiced by everyone. Many participants did not talk about their cultural or historical positions in the interviews, private conversations, or meetings, and these discussions were not deemed important. The CLTF participants sought to address serious issues by identifying community problems, often acting as advocates for disenfranchised people. The CLTF members did not consciously discuss their cultural position, not did they express a need to understand the cultural dependency of the people they represented. CLTF members did not mention that they considered themselves to be oppressed subjects, and most importantly, the oppressed victims of abuse, or their abusers, were not included in the discussion.

FINDINGS IN RELATION TO THE RESEARCH ON DIALOGUE

CLTF members were committed to social and economic justice for all residents. They acted as client-centered advocates for particular groups, including domestic abuse victims. The participants were committed to the ideals of equality, peace, and justice, and their efforts were a matter of duty or moral obligation. CLTF participants did not engage in conciencization as articulated by Freire (1970, 1973, 1985, 1994; as cited in Bell et al., 1990; Freire & Macedo, 1995). They challenged assumptions about current practices in the community and engaged in a rigorous process of learning and knowing by starting with what they knew and attempting to revise it so that they could know it better. Many members of the CLTF engaged in understanding their historical location briefly, but did not consider their own white privileged status, nor did they express a need to identify the historical location for the oppressed victims of domestic abuse. CLTF members, however, did express their beliefs that all people have to be valued. CLTF members acted as agents, however, for disenfranchised people, and believed that many victims did not seek assistance from abuse, because they did not know how to access the support system. In fact, most of the CLTF members said that in their experience, many persons in need could not speak for themselves and needed another's advocacy. CLTF participants did meet to transform their reality and progress toward improving their lives, as well as the lives of others, but it was not based upon a critical perspective. Discussion was an indispensable component of the CLTF participants' process of both learning and knowing. They engaged in discussion, not only because they liked other people, but because they recognized the social and individualistic character of the process of knowing. They engaged in this discussion as equal partners to express their voices and through this, identified and solved their problems in a relationship characterized by equality and respect. Their relationship was based on love, humility, hope, faith, and confidence. They did not labor together to reach a point of encounter, where they attempted to learn more than they now know. Dialogue exists with hope, where people start in a state of incompletion, but through their hope, move out in search of communion with others, but the CLTF members could not be considered oppressed. CLTF members' actions did not reflect Highlander's axiom: "learn from the people; start their education where they are" (Horton, as cited in Adams, 1975, p. 206).

FINDINGS IN RELATION TO THE RESEARCH ON PRAXIS

Participants engaged in praxis, that is reflection and action, but not from a critical perspective. CLTF members did not engage in critical consciousness. Their point of emergence did not begin with a critical examination of their culture, politics, and history, and the related issues of race, class, and gender. Neither did the CLTF members take action regarding the politics of abuse. CLTF members worked cooperatively and thought of others, rather than focusing solely on themselves (Smith, 1994). By possessing important skills needed to participate in some aspects of the construction of knowledge, the participants were able to challenge assumptions of the people in positions of leadership within the community (Banks, 1995).

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, the CLTF members engaged in thinking through the needs of community and of abuse victims in particular. They tried to consider power structures in the community that could support or hinder their efforts. They considered the strengths and weaknesses of their choices. However, it must be made clear that they did not engage in critical reflection according to the primary meanings advocated by Freire and Horton. The CLTF members did not critically reflect on their own historical embeddedness. For example, they did not consider their own relationships with abuse, the abusers, the abused, nor the historical, social, or cultural issues about these. The members did not engage the people they were seeking to help in critical reflection of their own conditions. Even though the CLTF members endeavored to free victims from the oppression of abuse, they did not employ emancipatory knowledge, which stems from one's desire to achieve others' emancipation from domination (Welton, 1993). Dialogue as a critical epistemological perspective was not engaged in by the CLTF members. The members valued conflict within hegemonic norms, worked to overcome it, but they did not fully realize authentic dialogue because they did not engage in dialogue of hegemony and their status within it. Too, despite their good intentions, events demonstrated that understanding the people involved the circumstances of abuse and the complexity of the domestic abuse problem were difficult to grasp. Only experts were called to give input. The people involved in the abuse situations were never engaged in dialogue. Therefore, one must make a distinction between some dialogue between the CLTF members and no dialogue with the people involved with abuse. Lastly, engaging in praxis as advocated by Freire and Horton did not occur for members of the CLTF. Actions taken were from the lens of a dominant paradigm of the privileged helping those who were not privileged, rather than from a critical paradigm. Therefore, the findings from this study suggest that the concepts of critical reflection, dialogue, and praxis can be seen as continua, rather than as absolute categories.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Despite the limitations of this study, the findings suggest that critical reflection, dialogue, and praxis may be improved by employing an external facilitator to initiate discussions about culture, history, politics, race, class, and gender issues if members of the community organization represent the dominant class. Since this research was restricted to members of the CLTF, a future study could be done within a community group that has historically been oppressed to examine the importance of cultural and historical positionality. Another inquiry could focus on the role of an external facilitator within a similar community based organization.

REFERENCES

Adams, F. (1975). *Unearthing seeds of fire: The idea of Highlander.* Winston-Salem, NC: Blair.
Apps, J. W. (1985). *Improving practice in continuing education.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Banks. J. (1995). The historical reconstruction of knowledge about race: Implications for transformative teaching. *Educational Researcher, 24*(2), 15-25.

Bell, B., Gaventa, J., & Peters, J. (Eds.). (1990). *We make the road by walking: Conversations on education and social change*. Philadelphia: Temple.

Candy, P. C. (1989). Constructivism and the study of self-direction in adult learning. *Studies inthe Education of Adults, 21*, 95-116.

Collins, P. H. (1990). *Black feminist thought: Knowledge, consciousness and the politics of empowerment*. Boston: Unwin Hyman.

Cunningham, P. M. (1988). The adult educator and social responsibility. In Ralph Brockett (Ed.), *Ethical issues in adult education* (pp. 133-145). New York: Teachers College Press.

Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York: Continuum.

Freire, P. (1973). *Education for critical consciousness*. New York: Continuum.

Freire, P. (1985). *The politics of education: Culture, power, and liberation*. London: Macmillan.

Freire, P. (1993). *Pedagogy of the city*. New York: Continuum.

Freire, P. (1994). *Pedagogy of hope: Pedagogy of the oppressed revisited*. New York: Continuum.

Freire, P., & Macedo, D. P. (1995). A dialogue: Culture, language, and race. *Harvard Educational Review, 65*, 377-402.

Gadotti, M. (1994). *Reading Paulo Freire: His life and work*. Albany, NY: SUNY Press.

hooks, b. (1994). *Teaching to transgress: Education as the practice of freedom*. New York: Routledge.

Ilsley, P. J. (1990). *Enhancing the volunteer experience: New insights on strengthening volunteer participation, learning, and commitment*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (1995). *Designing qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Mezirow, J. (1981). A critical theory of adult learning and education. *Adult Education Quarterly, 32*, 3-24.

Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Smith, M. K. (1994). *Local education: Community, conversation, praxis*. Buckingham, UK: Open University Press.

Welton, M. (1993). The contribution of critical theory to our understanding of adult learning. In S. B. Merriam (Ed.), *An update on adult learning theory* (pp. 81-90). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. (New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education, No. 57)

Yin, R. K. (1989). *Case study research: Design and methods* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Dr. Thomas E. Oblender, Alumnus, Adult Education Doctoral Program, c/o Penn State Harrisburg, 777 W. Harrisburg Pike, W157 Olmsted Building, Middletown, PA 17057

Dr. Daniele D. Flannery, Assistant Professor of Adult Education, Penn State Harrisburg, 777 W. Harrisburg Pike, W157 Olmsted Building, Middletown, PA 17057

Dr. Andrea D. Ellinger, Assistant Professor of Adult Education and Local Program Coordinator, Penn State Harrisburg, 777 W. Harrisburg Pike, W157 Olmsted Building, Middletown, PA 17057

Dr. Colleen Willard-Holt, Assistant Professor of Education, Penn State Harrisburg, 777 W. Harrisburg Pike, W351 Olmsted Building, Middletown, PA 17057

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' WAYS OF KNOWING AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF REFLECTIVE THINKING

Alcione N. Ostorga
Kathleen P. King

ABSTRACT

Teacher educators are presently exploring the various aspects of reflection on student teachers' practice. It has been noted that the level of reflection and style of practice are dependent on the epistemological stances of individuals and their level of maturation as adults (King & Kitchener, 1985, 1994). This qualitative study applies the Women's Ways of Knowing (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986) construct to the thinking exhibited by student teachers in interviews and a series of journals. The study explores the relationships between the student teachers' epistemological stances, teaching style as reported in journals, and the development of reflective thinking. It examines student teachers as adult learners growing in a continuum that will most likely continue as a lifelong process. The knowledge gained from this study may be helpful in developing practices for the education and preparation of reflective teachers based on andragogical principles

INTRODUCTION

Among the many areas of concern for teacher educators is the preoccupation with the discrepancy between student teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning, their knowledge of learning theory and their practice in the classroom (Calderhead, 1991; Feinman-Nemser & Remillard, 1995). It is evident that teachers do not always apply what they learn from their teacher preparation courses. This has led some teacher educators to use adult learning theories in teacher education programs (Cook, 1982; Lindsay, 1983). In particular, some teacher educators are engaged in exploring the various aspects of reflection on student teachers' practice. It has been noted that the level of reflection and style of practice are dependent on the epistemological stance of the individual and his/her level of maturation as an adult (King & Kitchener, 1994).

This qualitative study examined how some of the current reflective theory can be applied within the specific setting of one teacher education program and with the specific ethnic groups represented. It also examined the development of reflective thinking in student teachers within the context of a unique non-traditional college composed of students who are mostly of Latino ethnic groups. It looked at the relationships between epistemological beliefs and reflection. It attempts to answer the question: In what ways, if any, do epistemological beliefs affect reflection in student teachers?

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The questions posed in the research arose from specific theories that lead the field of reflective practice in teachers to its present stage (Dewey, 1933; Schon, 1983; Zeichner & Liston, 1996). The data was analysed with an open mind so that new hypotheses could be generated if the current theory was found inappropriate for the current situation (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996). Nevertheless, specific theories were used to define reflection and its various levels. Therefore, it is necessary to have an understanding of the theories used to define the concept of reflection and design of this study.

An important contributor to the theory of reflection as a way to develop professional practice is Schon (1983). The kind of reflections examined in this study through the analysis of reflective journals is what Schon calls reflection-on-action. This type of reflection occurs when teachers reflect upon their actions after they took place.

Reflection can also be understood through the work of Dewey (1933). In explaining reflection, he presented a paradigm for reflective action that requires three attitudes: openmindedness, responsibility and wholeheartedness. Openmindedness is the ability to remain open to multiple alternative possibilities. Responsibility refers to the careful consideration of the effects of one's actions. Wholeheartedness means that the first two attitudes of openmindedness and responsibility are central components of the teacher's life as a reflective practitioner. This theory of reflective practice implies sets of values that seem to be prerequisite to the reflective stance of teachers.

A study of the concept of reflection reveals that the word has many meanings. Current theory in the field of teacher education admits that reflection may take a variety of forms, that there are different kinds of reflection and that these levels may be developmental. Although the many different theories on reflection differ, most of them present reflective thinking in three hierarchical levels, ranging from a most rudimentary to a most complex. The three levels are described by Taggart and Wilson (1998) in a three level pyramid. The technical level refers to reflection on problems of methodology and theory development to achieve objectives. It focuses on short term measures to achieve specific behaviors and outcomes, making it easy to engage in within the temporary setting of a practicum experience. The second level, the contextual mode, involves reflections on alternative methods based on knowledge, values, context and student needs. It requires a deeper knowledge base of pedagogy than the first level. The last level, often referred to as critical reflection (Brookfield, 1995), is the highest level of reflective thinking and deals with reflections on teaching practices as they relate to moral and ethical issues in society. This hierarchical typology of reflection suggests that reflective thinking is a transformational process that is developmental.

The transformational aspect of reflection is explained in the work of Mezirow. Some levels of reflective thinking lead to transformation because the process requires an examination of previous assumptions. As these assumptions are examined, often old systems of knowledge are challenged and new options are explored and new courses of action taken (Mezirow, as cited in Cranton, 1994). With this end in mind, this study makes use of the work done by Belenky et al. (1986) on *Women's Ways of Knowing*. This paradigm was used to categorize the epistemological beliefs of the participants. According to this framework, there are five different ways of knowing. See table 1 for explanation of each category.

In the field of the development of teachers as reflective practitioners, there is a lack of knowledge about specific kinds of population. Particularly, there seems to be a lack of research that examines the development of reflection among minority groups or among women. To some extent, this study attempts to fill this gap.

RESEARCH DESIGN

There were two sets of data in this study. First, the participants were interviewed to get information about their epistemological beliefs. The interview consisted of a series of questions used by Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule (1986) in the study called *Women's Ways of Knowing*. Only those questions pertaining to the epistemological beliefs and events that led them to the present level of development were used. The interviews were tape recorded and then transcribed into written form. Each participant was classified according to the five categories developed through the original study mentioned above.

In addition to the data collected through the interview, data was also collected in the form of logs. As part of the normal assignment for the practicum course they were asked to write a series of 12 to 15 weekly logs, depending on the length of time it took for them to complete 115 hours of student teaching. The students were asked not to simply describe a sequence of events but to chose important moments in their experience to reflect upon. As the students submitted their logs they received verbal and written feedback from the facilitator researcher. Feedback consisted in comments designed to move the student into focusing the content of each log into one or two experiences they felt were meaningful or important for discussion.

Table 1

Ways of Knowing

Way of Knowing	Epistemological Beliefs
Silence Absence of voice, submissive, reactive and dependent on other, primitive concept of self.	Believe in the power of authority figures No capacity for representational thought
Received Knowledge Little confidence in own ideas Try to fit personal ideas to ideas of peers	Learn by listening. Knowledge is dualistic Like clarity in instruction, memorize material without transforming it
Subjective Knowledge Voice begins to develop, Keeps ideas to self	rely on intuition, knowledge is within self value knowledge based on experience
Procedural knowledge Problem solvers, 2 types Separate knowing (logical) Connected knowing (collaborative)	Knowledge from observation and analysis, multiple views are possible Separate knowing- procedures for knowing are impersonal, logical Connected knowing – procedures for understanding other people's knowledge
Constructed knowing Sort out pieces of self, find authentic voice	Knowledge is constructed, knower is part of the known, truth varies according to context, culture and discipline, attains knowledge by combining strategies used in received, subjective, and procedural knowledge.

Care was taken to minimize the effects of the study on the normal course of events in the process. The writing of the logs as an assignment is a natural occurrence in this teacher education program. It is part of the curriculum and therefore a normal course of events for the training of teachers at this school. Furthermore, these students have written similar assignments in other courses at this school and are familiar with this kind of exercise.

The analysis of data took place in two general stages. First, the interviews were analyzed and students categorized according to the ways of knowing. The second stage was the analysis of each student teacher's set of logs. These were examined for statements relating to the student teacher's epistemological beliefs such as beliefs about how the student teacher was approaching the experience as a learner of the teaching profession. The logs were also analyzed for quality and quantity of reflection. In other words, what did the student teachers choose to reflect upon, how did they reflect and how did the reflection relate to their ways of knowing.

SETTING AND PARTICIPANTS

This study took place within the context of Boricua College, an accredited Spanish bilingual institution that is unique in many ways. Its educational model produces significant impact on its students to promote transformation as evidenced through the students' own testimonials. It serves about 1200 students. On the average, 88 % of the student population consists of Latinos, mostly of Puerto Rican and Dominican origin, of which approximately 85% are women (Boricua College Self Study Report, 1995). A full ethnographic study of the college is necessary to fully comprehend its culture and holistic approach to learning. However, for the purposes of this paper, a brief description of some important educational components in the college is presented here.

At the center of the educational model is a holistic humanistic philosophy. Many of its elements originate from the ideas presented by Carl Rogers and Malcolm Knowles. Thus, learning takes place in an environment where students are "free to learn" by becoming aware of their process. The learning is the integration of five ways of learning: intellectual, affective, experiential, theoretical and cultural. However, the emphasis of the learning experience is focused on the intellectual, affective and experiential modes. Intellectual development takes place within a one to one setting with a facilitator where the student and the faculty member engage in metacognitive discussion of the intellectual process. This is done weekly for one hour and is referred to as the individualized hour. Content knowledge is also acquired in this setting but it is the vehicle through which intellectual processes are practiced. The affective development takes place through small group sessions called colloquia, where personal and professional values are examined through discussions of educational issues. And the experiential learning takes place through workshops and practicum settings.

The participants consisted of seven students from the senior class in the Elementary Education department enrolled for the first of two semesters of the student teaching experience. Of the seven participants, two were males. The ages ranged from 27 to 51. Of the participants selected, 1 was African American, 2 were born in Puerto Rico, 1 was born in New York of Puerto Rican parents, and 3 were born in the Dominican Republic. It is important to note these significant sociocultural differences because they influence the development of each participant.

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

Many important findings emerge from the data. Some of them validate knowledge already accepted; others are new hypotheses to be tested through further research. Of these, some are specific to the particular setting and population; others reveal new information about student teachers in general.

In applying reflective theory to these participants' journals, it is evident that in most instances, these student teachers reflected on the technical level. Perhaps this is so because their knowledge base was limited and because they were in the stage of learning about the profession. Even when some student teachers reached the highest level of reflection, the critical level, they were too focused on the present situation to relate the events to the broader spheres of social and political implications. This can be generalized to other student teacher populations in other college settings as well, unless specific practices are used to promote this level of reflection (McKenna, 1999).

Although the entire reflective cycle delineated by Taggart & Wilson (1998) was not explicitly visible in the journals, there was evidence that this process may be extrapolated from the data presented. Furthermore, the analysis of the journals also suggests that differences in the cyclical process is in many ways unique to each individual because there are differences in how each individual approaches the steps. For example, the knowledge base, the set of values and the experiences of the individual, will affect the way the problem is framed and reframed. It can also be extrapolated that these factors affect the way the student teacher, or any reflective practitioner, applies knowledge to solve problems and judge the outcomes of the solution.

Most important for this study was the connection between epistemological beliefs and the quality of reflection. Although this connection had been studied before through the process of critical judgment (King & Kitchener, 1985, 1994), this study brings new light into the relationship. The analysis suggests that the connection between these two elements take place not only during reflective judgment, but also at other points in the reflective cycle. The way a student teacher frames a problem for instance depends on the epistemological beliefs. For example, *constructed knowers* who favored the *connected procedural* way of knowing framed problems in the classroom in a specific way. Their emphasis on the children's perspective, their emotional well being and the solutions they presented to problems were colored by this way of thinking. Thus, it is not only the reflective judgment that is affected by the epistemological beliefs, the entire reflective process is colored by these beliefs.

In examining the data against Dewey's concept of reflective action, it is evident that the attitude of openmindedness is closely related to the epistemological beliefs. Furthermore, openmindedness seems to happen differently according to the epistemological beliefs. Though it is usually agreed that openmindedness requires a belief in the multiplicity of knowledge, only present in the *constructed* way of knowing, and to some degree perhaps in *procedural knowing*, openmindedness can exist in other forms of knowing. The moment a student teacher disagreed with the technique used by her/himself or another teacher, some level of openmindedness occurred. An evaluation of a teaching technique that led to a disagreement required the belief that perhaps this was not the best way to act within a given moment. What is important to keep in mind is that this minimal level of openmindedness is limiting in that some very important assumptions will never be examined, and thus perhaps some very efficient solutions to a problem will never be tried.

Another very interesting aspect of the data is that in many ways it presents a picture of the student teachers while in the process of being transformed. There are many instances when the researcher sees the participants, as growing in a continuum. The growth will most likely not end with graduation, but will continue as a lifelong process of development. For example, though the Belenky et al. (1986) study examined the ways of knowing as distinct categories--not necessarily as one level more advanced than the other--there are hints of these categories being levels in a developmental continuum. In this study, it was impossible to categorize the participants as belonging to one category because they revealed that they used ways of knowing from different categories depending on the situation. Therefore, they were considered as belonging to two categories. There is also evidence that the last category is an integration of the previous three. Furthermore, the information presented during the interviews clearly revealed that they had experienced a different way of knowing in the past. The study then seems to present a clearer understanding of the ways of knowing as a developmental construct.

It is evident that the process of reflection is the integration of intellectual and affective processes. On the intellectual side, these participants' reflections clearly demonstrate the use of intellectual skills practiced within the educational setting of the college (Sengupta, 1990). How these skills were used was unique to each student. These skills also interacted with the student teachers' personal and professional values, epistemological beliefs being one element in this system of beliefs. It is also evident that the highest levels of integration take place within the mind of the *constructed knower*.

CONCLUSION

Though not all the participants were at the *constructed knower* level there seems to be evidence of progression. This development can be connected to the college's educational model especially within the context of colloquium and individual hour. It is in the colloquium where through discussions on educational issues students are exposed to multiple ways of knowing and become aware of new epistemological perspectives. This kind of knowledge and awareness of the self in relation to others may promote the perspective transformations (King, 1997) necessary for the development towards a more liberating way of knowing such as *constructed knowing*. Furthermore, the colloquium setting also promotes the attitude of openmindedness required for critical reflection. The individual hour, on the other hand, can also contribute to development of reflective thinking because through this medium students become aware of their intellectual processes and achieve higher levels of intellectual skills necessary for the reflective process. In this way, the combination of instruction with personal dialogue has proven to be beneficial in promoting development of reflective practitioners and is suggested for adoption in teacher education programs.

A uniqueness in the reflection of these participants seems to be their focus on the emotional well being of the students. This characteristic is recognized in some books on teacher-student relations (Brookfield, 1995; Gazda, 1998) and bears further examination in this context of reflective practice. Opportunities to learn more about how to facilitate well being of students may be addressed in human relations classes for teachers-in-training.

Finally, though the hypotheses generated by this study are significant contributions to the knowledge of reflection, the size of the sample and the situational elements make further study a necessity. Some suggestions include the use of a larger sample and a more in depth look at the reflective process in the practicum through metacognitive discussions of the reflections written by student teachers. A longitudinal study of the student teacher's development of reflective thinking can also promote a deeper understanding of this concept. These and other ways of looking at data provided by student teachers may help in the process of developing clear practices for the education and preparation of reflective teachers.

REFERENCES

Belenky, M. F., Clinchy, B. M., Goldberger, N. R., & Tarule, J. M. (1986). *Women's ways of knowing: The development of self, voice and mind.* New York: Basic Books.

Boricua College. (1995). *Boricua College Self Study Report.* New York: Author.

Brookfield, S. D. (1995). *Becoming a critically reflective teacher.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Calderhead, J. (1991). The nature and growth of knowledge in student teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 7,* 531-35.

Cook, G. E. (1982, April). *Teachers as learners: Approaches to professional education.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Council of teachers of English Spring Conference, Minneapolis, MN. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 219 801)

Cranton. P. (1994). *Understanding and promoting transformative learning: A guide for educators of adults.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think.* Chicago: Henry Regnery.

Feiman-Nemser, S., & Remillard, J. (1995). *Perspectives on learning to teach* (Issue Paper 95-3). East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 379 279)

Gall, M. D., Borg, W. R., & Gall, J. P. (1996). *Educational research: An introduction* (6th ed). White Plains, NY: Longman.

Gazda, G. M. (Ed.). (1998). *Human relations development: A manual for educators* (6th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

King, K. P. (1997). Examining learning activities and transformational learning. *International Journal of University Adult Education, 36*(3), 23-37.

King, P. M., & Kitchener, K. S. (1985, March). *Reflective judgment theory and research: Insights into the process of knowing in the college years.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American College Personnel Association, Boston. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 263 821)

King, P. M., & Kitchener, K. S. (1994). *Developing reflective judgment: Understanding and promoting intellectual growth and critical thinking in adolescents and adults.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Lindsay, M. (1983). Teacher education for adult educators. *Journal of Teacher Education, 34*(3), 50-53.

McKenna, H. (1999, April). *Educating for social justice: Reflection and pre-service teacher educators.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Montreal, Canada.

Schon, D. (1983). *The reflective practitioner.* New York: Basic Books.

Taggart, G. L., & Wilson, A. P. (1998). *Promoting reflective thinking in teachers: 44 action strategies.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Sengupta, S. (1990). The Barbara Simms story: Intellectual skills, reading and the affective domain. *Journal of Educational Facilitation, 1*(1), 13-26.

Zeichner, K. M., & Liston, D. P. (1996). *Reflective teaching: An introduction.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Alcione Ostorga, Assistant Professor, Boricua College, 3755 Broadway, New York, NY 10026
josalc@earthlink.net

Kathleen P. King, Ed.D. Assistant Professor, Fordham University113 W. 60th St., and Rm. 1102
New York, NY 10023 Kpking@Fordham.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

WHY ADULT EDUCATORS SHOULD CARE ABOUT DIVERSITY: A LITERATURE REVIEW

Ossie M. Parker

ABSTRACT

This paper examines some of the literature that reinforces the value/place of diversity in adult education, and how diversity affects the adult educator.

INTRODUCTION

> Racism continues to be a large and troubling issue throughout American society. Racism has become institutionalized at every level of society and the consequences are destructive to both white people and people of color. Lack of consciousness of white privilege is a key factor in perpetuating this situation. There is a need for developing the kinds of learning processes that effectively arouse and expand consciousness through catalyzing the expansion of ontological and epistemological capacities in order to help white people recognize how embedded they are in a white cultural perspective. Applying these learning processes can serve to begin to transform those institutional and social practices that perpetuate racist discourse. (Barlas, 1997)

But that's not what this paper is about! "To get at the essence for a particular function's existence, we should ask, what would be the compelling reason for reestablishing that function if it were eliminated?" (Broudy, as cited by Donaldson, 1991). What is the purpose of diversity in adult education? Where would adult education be without diversity? Where would adult education be if diversity were eliminated? It is my premise that there would be no adult education as we know it.

DEFINITIONS

DIVERSITY

There are numerous ways in which diversity has been defined. Hayles (1996) defines diversity as "all the ways in which we differ" (p. 105) and states that the diversity concept is not limited to what people traditionally think of when they hear the word diversity, i.e., race, gender and disabilities. Griggs (1995) classified diversity into primary and secondary dimensions. Primary dimensions of diversity are those human differences that are inborn and/or that exert an important impact on our early socialization and have an ongoing impact throughout our lives. Griggs also concluded that human beings cannot change these primary dimensions. They shape our basic self-image and have great influence on how we view the world. "The secondary dimensions of diversity are those that can be changed and include, but are not limited to, educational background, geographic location, income, marital status, military experience, parental status, religious beliefs, and work experience" (Griggs, 1995, p. 1).

Adult education would fit under this secondary dimension of diversity.

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

ADULT LEARNER

Penn State defines the adult learner as one who has been out of high school for at least four years, and began or resumed studies after the age of 24. An adult learner is defined as an enrolled student who meets at least one of the following: (a) age 24 or higher, (b) veteran, (c) someone who has had a hiatus from education for 4 years, and (d) someone who has multiple adult roles (Harrison, Hitchock, Liner, & Shaffer, 1993).

ADULT EDUCATION

Adult education is concerned with helping people to live more successfully. Therefore, an overarching function of the adult education enterprise should be to assist adults in increasing competence or negotiating transitions in their social roles of worker, parent, retiree etc. It should also help them to gain greater fulfillment in their personal lives and to assist them in solving personal and community problems (Smith, 1999).

MANAGEMENT

Management may be defined as the art and science of working with people in order to achieve organizational goals and objectives. The fundamental functions of management are often designated as planning, organizing, implementing, controlling, and evaluating (Langerman & Smith, 1979).

HOW DOES DIVERSITY AFFECT THE ADULT EDUCATOR?

- ✓ Adult education teachers who instruct in adult basic education programs may work with students who do not speak English.
- ✓ 20% of the adult population in the U.S. cannot read well enough to function independently in work and life responsibilities.
- ✓ Adult educators may work with a prison population.
- ✓ Adult education plays a central role in the prevention of HIV infection in the United States.
- ✓ Adult educators work with adult students/learners. These students may bring years of experience into the classroom.
- ✓ Adult students/learners may have a job, or family responsibilities.
- ✓ Enrollment in ABE and literacy programs is increasing because of changes in immigration policy that require basic competency in English and civics.
- ✓ An estimated four out of ten adults participated in some form of adult education in 1995.

When we think of diversity we don't often think of adult learners. But adult learners embody diversity by very definition. According to the *Handbook for Adult Learners at Penn State* (Sleigh, 1992), the adult learner is someone who is over the age of 23 and returns to school after at least a four-year absence. Seventy per cent of all adult students work full time, 60% are married, and 85% are motivated by life's changing circumstances. Three out of five adult learners are female. This is an underrepresented group on college campuses (Asbury, Cahir, Romano, & Ryan, 1998). The distinction is made between adult learners and 'traditional' students. The adult learner has different educational, scheduling and service needs. An adult education division should have established programs and services to meet those needs (Asbury et al., 1998; Harrison et al., 1993).

According to Johnson-Bailey and Brown (1997),

> Adult women who return to college comprise the fastest growing segment of the college population. Since the 1970s women have been returning to college in record numbers. Statistics show these returning women represent 41% of all female college students. . . . They are different from the average student because of their age and needs. These students are important to the future of higher education and warrant study not only because of their potential economic importance but because higher education should be concerned with determining and answering the needs of this new population. (p. 149)

The adult education administrator has always needed to be a manager, director, or coordinator of programs. Besides having expected skills and competencies, the administrator has had to develop enhanced skills, increase leadership responsibilities, and adapt to changing roles, particularly in the last decade (Mulcrone, 1993).

To not have an awareness of the value of diversity in the adult education context jeopardizes the nine administrative functions thought to be necessary in all organizations: philosophy and mission, goals and objectives, planning, organization and structure, leadership, staffing, budgeting, marketing, and evaluation (Mulcrone, 1993).

UNIVERSAL ADULT EDUCATOR

> Although there exists a bounty of literature on teaching adults in the mainstream adult education literature there is a conspicuous absence of discussion of how the race and gender of the teacher effects the teach-learning environment. This absence perpetuates the myth of the universal adult educator, one void of race and gender. The myth of the universal adult educator proposes that all teachers would encounter the same things within the classroom and could therefore produce the same results as any other teacher if they follow the prescriptive practices outlined in books on teaching and facilitating adult learners. The problem is that teachers are affected by institutional and classroom environments along with both political and societal factors. Teachers' interpretation of their experiences are influenced by their cultural background and their own sense of personal agency. . . . Moreover, [some authors] advocate that teachers have beliefs about teaching and the teaching-learning process that stem from their own experiences and influence their teaching practices. These attitudes . . . inevitably affect student achievement more than any other classroom factor. Additionally, [others] support the belief that the teaching-learning environment is influenced by the teacher's personal characteristics. (Brown, 1997)

POPULATION CHANGES

Under the Refugee Resettlement Program, approximately 1,947,100 refugees have arrived in the U.S. since 1975. In addition to this number, 125,000 Cubans, designated as "entrants" under the Cuban/Haitian Entrant Program, arrived during the 1980 Mariel boatlift. With over 1,180,500 persons, the Southeast Asians represent the most significant proportion of the refugee population. Vietnamese continue to be the majority group among the refugees from Southeast Asia; however in recent years, their proportion of the total has declined with the arrival of larger numbers of refugees from Cambodia and Laos (U. S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1994).

In Fiscal Year 1994, 112,136 refugees entered the United States. (Not included in this figure are 13,255 Cuban and Haitian nationals who were admitted under the Cuban/Haitian Entrant Program). This number represents approximately 92 percent of the admissions ceiling (set at 121,000 for FY 1994). The former U. S. S. R. was responsible for the largest number of arrivals in FY 1994. Almost half of all refugees arriving in FY 1994 initially resettled in the states of California (24 percent) and New York (19 percent) (U. S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1994). Adult educators are involved with this population mainly through English as a second language (ESL) programs (U. S. Department of Education, 1996).

ADULT PARTICIPATION IN ESL PROGRAMS IN THE UNITED STATES

The last national study of adult education, conducted in April 1992, showed the total number of adult education clients receiving ESL instruction had increased by 268% over the 12 years since the previous study done in 1980. In fact, adult ESL learners constituted a majority of 51% of adult education clients in that year, receiving 76% of the hours of instruction (Wrigley, 1993).

The three most common types of literacy programs are Adult Basic Education [ABE], Adult Secondary Education [ASE], and ESL. ESL is the fastest growing, serving the largest number of adult literacy students in the United States (National Clearinghouse for ESL Literacy Education, 1995). The ESL enrollment of English language learners nearly tripled from 1980 to 1995, from 396,000 to over 1.4 million (Adult Learning & Literacy Clearinghouse, 1997). Most students enrolled in ESL programs reside in California, Texas, New York, Florida and Illinois, accounting for 75% of ESL enrollments nationwide (U. S. Department of Education, 1996).

Of the ESL students currently enrolled in adult education programs, the majority is Hispanic (69%) and Asian (19%). Almost all reported reading well in their native language; however, only 13% reported speaking English well at the time of enrollment, and 73% were initially placed in beginning level ESL classes (Fitzgerald, 1995). There are many more students waiting to enroll in these classes, particularly in urban areas.

These specific questions should be considered by the adult education administration when considering ESL for non-literate adults:

- ✓ Should a special class be created?
- ✓ How can you determine if students are literate in their native language?
- ✓ Should the non-literate be taught to read in the native language first?
- ✓ Should reading instruction be delayed until students have some fluency in oral English?
- ✓ Should reading and writing be taught at the same time?
- ✓ How is teaching English reading to the non-literate different from teaching reading to someone literate in his native language?
- ✓ How does teaching reading to the non-literate adult ESL student differ from teaching beginning reading to native English-speaking children?
- ✓ Should the adult learner be taught to read and write in cursive or manuscript?
- ✓ What methods should be used in teaching non-literate adults to read in English?

Answers to these questions can be found at: http://humanities.byu.edu/ELC/teacher/SectionFour/SpecialChar

PARTICIPATORY EDUCATION

Participatory education begins with the teacher and is grounded in the respect the teacher gives to the knowledge and experience of the learner. Participatory education includes involving learners in the shaping of the curriculum, redefining student and teacher roles, promoting native language literacy, and encouraging critical thinking (Brookfield, 1990, Cross, 1981). The participatory process can be used to teach many subjects to adult learners. Some adult educators have been using the participatory process for several years.

ADULT BASIC EDUCATION (ABE) PROGRAMS

Most programs for adults are implemented by local school districts. Classes for adults take place during the day and evening in a variety of settings, as teachers work with students at many different skill levels. The ultimate goal of many ABE students is to earn their GED, the equivalent of a high school diploma. ABE programs coordinate efforts with local literacy councils in providing education services to low-literate adults who want to increase their skills.

Local Literacy Councils are volunteer organizations offering one-on-one tutoring for low-literate adults. Many local literacy councils employ the phonics-based Laubach method of literacy instruction. Volunteer tutors meet with their adult students in a variety of locations, often in libraries or schools. Literacy council tutors often provide individualized support for ABE students and teachers. Generally, tutors work with students a minimum of two hours each week.

Adult education at the end of this century is represented by market-driven,
professionalized institutions that help individuals acquire the knowledge and skills needed to maintain the status quo, and those who envision a different order and consider the purpose of their educative work is to bring it about (Kerka, 1996).

EDUCATION FOR HIV PREVENTION

According to Archie-Booker (1997), education offers the primary means by which HIV infection can be controlled. Community-based organizations have served as the primary setting for providing HIV risk reduction interventions, including adult education for populations at risk for contracting the virus. As the face of AIDS continues to change, prevention education efforts need to evolve to address the needs of new populations. Given the epidemic's history in the gay community, many community based agencies have understandably focused their educational efforts there. These agencies have people in the power structure whose interests are primarily related to serving the needs of the gay male population. Therefore, community based agencies will need to develop unique forms of educational programs in order to have a hope of reducing HIV infection in all communities and its resulting personal and social costs. If these educational providers are to be successful, they need to offer programs that are culturally-relevant for the populations they serve (Archie-Booker, 1997).

CONCLUSIONS

The literature confirms my theory that adult education, by very nature of its function, embodies diversity. As the face of America changes, the educational needs of the population changes. There is no universal adult educator. That is a myth. As the population changes, becoming more diverse and multicultural in nature, the need arises for a more diverse pool of adult educators. English as a second language will continue to be a major component of the adult educational system. Adult Basic Education, as well as Literacy Councils will not soon run out of work. And then there's education for health awareness. The adult educators must not look lightly at the awesome task set before them.

By identifying the factors that constrain and enable culturally relevant programming, funding agencies, institutional leaders, and program planners can better anticipate how to respond effectively and compassionately to the educational needs of the adult learner.

I would advise adult educators to gird their confidence, examine their assumptions, show some humility and be willing to ask questions that indicate respect for the learners as valuable human beings. That kind of action research affords one the advantage of acquiring useful information, enhancing their own knowledge, and heightening their sensitivity and awareness. The adult education administrator must: (a) recognize the importance of providing culturally relevant programming, (b) have the knowledge and skill and resources necessary to provide such programming, and (c) have the scope of agency mission to provide such programming for targeted groups.

Why should adult educators care about diversity? Because it is the very foundation of who we are!

REFERENCES

Adult Learning & Literacy Clearinghouse. (1997, March). *Adult education for limited English proficient adults*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, OVAE.

Archie-Booker, D. E. (1997). The politics of planning culturally relevant AIDS prevention education for African-American women. In R. E. Nolan & H. Chelesvig (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 38th Annual Adult Education Research Conference* (pp. 1-6). Stillwater, OK: Oklahoma State University.

Asbury, W. W., Cahir, J. J., Romano, J. J., & Ryan, J. H. (1998). *Charge to the Commission for Adult Learners*. University Park, PA: Pens State University.

Barlas, C. (1997). Developing white consciousness through a transformative learning process. In R. E. Nolan & H. Chelesvig (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 38th Annual Adult Education Research Conference* (pp. 19-24). Stillwater, OK: Oklahoma State University.

Brookfield, S. (1990). *Understanding and facilitating adult learning*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Brown, A. (1997). The myth of the universal adult educator: a literature review. In R. E. Nolan & H. Chelesvig (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 38th Annual Adult Education Research Conference* (pp. 43-48). Stillwater, OK: Oklahoma State University.

Cross, K. P. (1981). Adults as learners. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Donaldson, J. F. (1991). New opportunities or a new marginality: Strategic issues in continuing higher education. *Continuing Higher Education Review, 55*(3), pp. 120-128.

Fitzgerald, N. B. (1995). *ESL instruction in adult education: Findings from a national evaluation.* Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for ESL Literacy Education, Center for Applied Linguistics. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 385 171)

Griggs, L. B. (1995). Valuing diversity: Where from . . . where to? In L. B. Griggs & L. L. Louw (Eds.), *Valuing diversity: New tools for a new reality* (pp. 1-14). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Harrison, C., Hitchock, D., Liner, J., & Shaffer, R. (1993). *Adult learner guidelines.* University Park, PA: Penn State University

Hayles, V. R. (1996). Diversity training and development. In R. L. Craig (Ed.), *The ASTD training and development handbook: A guide to human resource development* (4th ed., pp. 104-123). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Johnson-Bailey, J., & Brown, A. H. (1997). Participation and retention factors relating to Black reentry graduate and undergraduate women in the College of Education. In R. E. Nolan & H. Chelesvig (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 38th Annual Adult Education Research Conference* (pp. 149-154). Stillwater, OK: Oklahoma State University.

Kerka, S. (1996). *Adult education: Social change or status quo?* (ERIC Digest #176). Columbus, OH: ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career and Vocational Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 402 472)

Langerman, P. D., & Smith, D. H. (Eds.). (1979). *Managing adult and continuing education programs and staff.* Washington, DC: National Association for Public Continuing and Adult Education.

Mulcrone, P. (Ed.). (1993). *Current perspectives on administration of adult education programs.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. (New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education, No. 60)

National Clearinghouse for ESL Literacy Education. (1995). The Waiting Game. *NCLE Notes, 6*(1), 1-2.

Sleigh, M. K. (1992). *Handbook for adult learners at Penn State.* University Park, PA: Penn State University.

Smith, M. K. (1999, July). Adult education: The meaning of adult education. A brief guide and bibliography [On-line]. The informal education homepage. Available: http://www.infed.org/lifelonglearning/b-adedgn.htm

U. S. Department of Education, Division of Adult Education and Literacy. (1996). *A state adult ESL update: Selected program activities and accomplishments.* Washington, DC: Author.

U. S. Department of Health and Human Services. (1994). *Report to the Congress: FY 1994. Refugee Resettlement Program.* Washington DC: Author.

Wrigley, H. P. (1993). *Adult ESL literacy: Findings from a national study.* Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for ESL Literacy Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 365 169)

Ms. Ossie M. Parker, Adult Counselor, Penn State Altoona, 3000 Ivyside Dr., Altoona, PA 16601.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, 16801. March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

INFORMAL LEARNING OF HOMELESS WOMEN: A FEMINIST STUDY OF SURVIVING THE EVERYDAY

Carole E. Pearce

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine how homeless women learned to survive in their daily lives. Their relationships contributed to many years of unsettling experiences and continuous transitional situations. Each woman followed a progression of sophisticated street smarts, but eventually faced a devastating decision that served as the impetus for a learning experience that resulted in an empowering change.

INTRODUCTION

Poor women, victims of social and economic oppression, are the most likely individuals to become homeless. By the very nature of this oppression, they must learn to survive in adverse circumstances. Within the social context of homelessness, women in transition must learn to survive each day and hopefully realize a better quality of life in order to move beyond homelessness and poverty. These women are faced with numerous challenges that may warrant the attainment of further knowledge. There are times that stressful situations, such as loss of job, change in familial circumstances; etc. motivates an adult to seek new information.

Homeless women, coping with daily multiple and adverse situations, make decisions based on prior knowledge, obtained in both formal and informal learning environments. Specifically, formal learning environments include public schools, vocational-technical training schools, business schools, and the like. While informal learning environments are not structured and primarily constitute an individual's daily life experiences.

Welton (1995) suggests that all social relations provide the arena for learning to take place and refers to this viewpoint as the social learning paradigm. He suggests that there are three types of institutions that "are the indispensable source from which our character and identity is formed and reformed" (p. 134). They are family and schools, groups and associations, and cultural groups that promote religion, art, social norms, and the like. Personal identity and behavior patterns are formed through our social learning processes.

PARADIGMS OF WOMEN'S LEARNING

The context of women's learning is patterned by and reflects the multiple roles and tasks performed by women in our society. In turn, their relationships form an intricate web that serves as a foundation for their ongoing learning experiences. Bateson (1994) reminds us that sometimes we learn by "plan and experience" (p. 42) and at other times we learn by observation. Most importantly each of us learns how to transfer knowledge from one experience to another.

Women's learning may be viewed from two perspectives: the analytical learning paradigm and the relational learning paradigm. In real life, it is difficult to distinguish the characteristics and tendencies inherent to each paradigm. However, for the purposes of this discussion, each learning process will be examined separately.

The analytic learning paradigm investigates the acquisition of knowledge that is gathered through formal institutions. The relevance of including this paradigm stems from a feminist interpretation that knowledge obtained in formal institutional settings reflects the male-dominated norms pervasive in our society. Specifically, this knowledge has been sanctioned by society, and taught in a manner that meets the needs of men and society.

The relational learning paradigm examines knowledge that is acquired from informal sources, particularly life experiences. Of primary interest, is how women utilize what they learn outside of formal institutions, such as schools and community activities.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The design of this study was constructed by drawing from the tenets of three forms of research: qualitative research, phenomenological methods, and feminist research. Qualitative research is based upon the notion that reality is best understood by examining the social interaction among individuals. The underlying philosophy of phenomenological research methods guides the researcher to examine a specific situation within a particular environment. Feminist research methods (methods that are used by individuals who consider themselves feminists) were used to guide the relationship between the researcher and the participants, the acknowledgment of "voice," and each woman's oral histories.

I conducted three seventy-five minute interviews with each of the four study participants using the phenomenological interviewing approach. These interviews focused on obtaining specific information regarding the critical incidents, or significant events, that each woman had while being homeless. From each woman's collection of stories, I searched for evidence that she had learned some information and how this learning took place using thematic analysis of the transcribed interviews. The transcripts were then examined to identify the emerging themes and categories that were used to formulate the study findings.

EMERGENT THEMES

The experiences of the study participants were grouped into four themes: perception of self, instability of relationships, ineffectual decision making, and resourcefulness.

PERCEPTION OF SELF

The theme of perception of self is broken into three parts. First, I explored how each woman viewed herself. Second, the perception of self includes each participant's perception of how others view her. The third component is how I perceive each woman as she referred to herself in relationships or the comments that she made about herself. These self-identifying perceptions affected how each woman went about making decisions and how this affected her learning outcomes. Sometimes, parents and other primary relationships in her life heavily influenced these perceptions. There were other times that each woman's perception of self was based on how she felt dealing with a particular situation in her life. These perceptions were predicated on their initial perceptions of self as a child.

INSTABILITY OF RELATIONSHIPS

The interviews revealed a pattern, based on interpretation and how I viewed them, which suggested that each woman experienced unstable relationships. The relationships with parents, siblings, children and men that each woman named in her interviews had an influence on the decisions that she made and often affected her learning. Many times a study participant commented that she learned from her mistakes when taking familial relationships into account.

INEFFECTUAL DECISION MAKING

The decisions made by the participants did not always yield the desired outcome. At times some negative outcomes included instability in a relationship, lack of suitable housing, or little or no economic benefits. How each woman went about making decisions affected the learning processes during their transitional status.

Sometimes it is difficult to discern between the decision-making processes and the informal learning processes as they often follow similar or parallel paths. Occasionally, how the study participants made decisions and the learning that took place was often identical.

Each of the women interviewed made decisions in various ways. All of them commented at some point that their decision-making strategies evolved from learning by the mistakes that were made through life experiences. It is interesting to point out here that throughout the span of their transitional status, their decision making skills ranged from making impulsive decisions through contemplative thought and planning.

RESOURCEFULNESS

The theme of resourcefulness examined the ways in which each woman utilized her understanding of a problem that she had to deal with and how she went about resolving the situation based on her understanding of her needs at that time. This section reflects the crux of this study: how each of these women learned to survive. The ingenuity of each woman ranged from one participant's experiences of living on the streets when she stated: "I was a con artist" and another's experiences of "I was acting," when discussing her flight from an abusive relationship to another woman's belief that you "do what you have to do." Sometimes the study participants acted contrary to acceptable moral behavior by lying, cheating, and stealing. Most often they survived by figuring out who they could trust to assist them during their transition and, more importantly, learned to craft conscious resolutions to the dilemmas they were facing.

The term "street smarts" refers to a compilation of the various ways that each woman went about surviving while in transition, whether it is negotiating to reside with a friend, live on the streets, or seek refuge in a shelter. Acquiring street smarts is a very complicated, intricate process. This process begins as a child when the learning process begins, often very intrinsic at first, or learning by observing one's parents. Formal schooling also plays a part in this as a child, who turns adolescent, negotiates her social relationships in both the public world, and in the private world of home. How an individual feels about herself, or self-esteem, is very important and affects how decisions are engineered. When a girl or woman is abused, whether physically, emotionally, or both, she will make decisions under duress and will often take drastic measures that ordinarily would be of a more calculating nature. As one participant comments, "When you're being abused you question everything that you're doing."

STUDY CONCLUSIONS

The informal learning progression of the study participants was affected by many external factors that stemmed from familial and social relationships. The foundation of each participant's social learning began as a child relating with her parents. Overall, her family life did not always provide a nurturing environment to encourage a positive sense of self and as stated in many instances was detrimental. Specifically, each woman lacked positive role models as a child to develop a personal identity that fostered self-esteem. Moreover, her family environment did not provide a positive and stable atmosphere for support in their formal education, or to establish strong and healthy social relationships with their parents.

Each woman, through unforeseen circumstances, was forced to prematurely assume adult roles and responsibilities while still an adolescent. This fact, coupled with a poor foundation for positive learning experiences within the family unit, forced her to persevere throughout periods of transition ill-prepared to meet the challenges that she faced. In this sense, each woman as a young adult did not have the guidance to distinguish between good and bad choices. In essence, each woman did not learn the skills to initiate effective decision making and maintaining a healthy relationship, or possess sufficient education to obtain sustainable employment.

Their informal learning path could be sub-divided into situational and intentional learning. Their situational learning course involved a complex web comprised of learning from mistakes, controlling relationships, crossing moral boundaries, and making spontaneous decisions. When viewing situational learning from a feminist lens, each woman was under the power and influence of controlling relationships with their father, a boyfriend, or a mother or whom she was dependent on at the time. To some extent, their learning was limited within a particular relationship since each woman succumbed to the choices established for her instead of making decisions based on her own choices.

When participants employed intentional learning, the process consisted of planned activities that utilized community resources and services. Therefore, each woman took the initiative to make conscious choices about her learning despite of the desires of someone who had previously dominated her life. Most often when engaged in intentional learning, the participants were making plans or had already left an abusive relationship. Thus, the intentional learning was self-initiated.

IMPLICATIONS FOR ADULT EDUCATION THEORY AND PRACTICE

From this study, I discovered that the learning of these women is greatly affected by their relationships and that often these relationships provide intrinsic and extrinsic motivating factors for a positive or negative learning experience. I also learned that their dominant relationships influences their social ability for positive informal learning experiences and that this interference affected an awareness of their own personal identity and development as women. While we do not know that their self-esteem was affected by their relationships, we do not know the extent that self-esteem was suppressed by the men in their lives. Nor do we know the extent to which these women believed that they could make a change in their lives because they continued to repeat similar behaviors that were devastating to their lives.

Homeless educators could benefit from incorporating ideas drawn from the theory of perspective transformation, which is defined as "the process of becoming critically aware of how and why our assumptions have come to constrain the way we perceive, understand, and feel about our world" (Mezirow, 1991, p. 167), to enhance the learning strategies of homeless women. Educators of homeless women may consider ways to foster self-efficacy and self-esteem into their daily interactions with the women. Without a strong sense of self and belief that she has control over her thoughts, feelings, and actions, a woman in transition will be more likely to repeat similar behavior that stifles her chances to obtain a stable and independent life. Furthermore, educators of homeless women must remain cognizant of the fact that decision making among homeless women affects their stability and seek ways to encourage homeless women to make decisions that will disrupt their transitional cycle. This may be accomplished by examining the decision-making process of each woman and provide a means that would encourage reflective learning.

Homeless education classes should incorporate ideas to encourage women to engage in critical thinking. It was apparent that these women did not often acquire critical thinking skills through their life experiences. However, these women crafted ways to obtain street smarts and possess the capability to analyze this knowledge in a positive manner. By employing critical thinking, a homeless woman may examine previously held assumptions, attitudes, and behaviors to discern different ways of navigating her life.

Finally, educational programs for homeless women may provide tools that will empower women to initiate conscientious and healthy behavior to obtain stability in their relationships and in other areas of their lives. Specifically, the women must realize that there are practical solutions to their problems and actively seek the tools to achieve a stable life.

REFERENCES

Bateson, M. C. (1994). *Peripheral visions: Learning along the way.* New York: HarperCollins.

Mezirow, J. (1991). *Transformative dimensions of adult learning.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Welton, M.R. (Ed.). (1995). *In defense of the lifeworld: Critical perspectives on adult learning.* Albany, NY: SUNY Press.

Carole E. Pearce, D.Ed., Interim Director, Adult Basic Education and Developmental Studies, Harrisburg Area Community College, One HACC Drive, C101B, Harrisburg, PA 11170. cepearce@hacc.edu or cbk102@psu.edu.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS FOR INTERNET-BASED LEARNING IN DEVELOPMENTAL MATHEMATICS: A PRELIMINARY REPORT

Stella Perez
Wellesley R. Foshay

ABSTRACT

Nine community colleges implemented in Fall, 1999 an Internet-based self-instructional mathematics curriculum (developed by PLATO) as part of their developmental studies programs. The programs used a variety of structures, ranging from "pure" distance education to various mixtures of classroom and computer-based work on campus. The study characterizes the components of each program and examines the results obtained in learning gains, retention, participation in a learning community, and subjective reactions of faculty and learners. The aim of the study is to identify the critical success factors for successful Internet-based developmental studies programs in mathematics.

INTRODUCTION

Developmental education is needed by up to 44% of students in 2-year colleges (1995 data from the National Center for Educational Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, quoted in Boylan & Saxon, 1998). However, developmental educators have noted that only a small proportion of those who are identified as needing remedial study in fact avail themselves of such services, and premature exit from developmental studies programs is common (J. Stoik, personal communication, September, 1998). It seems likely that for many of these unsuccessful users of developmental studies services, unsuitability of conventional modes of instructional delivery may be among the factors contributing to the problem of disuse of services.

Two recent trends may help address this problem. First, the advent of high-quality, cost-effective computer-based learning systems such as PLATO® has made it possible for many exemplary developmental education programs to change their instructional models and overcome the familiar limitations of the conventional teacher-centered classroom (McCabe & Day, 1998). Second, the current explosion of low-cost interactive distance education technologies using the Internet and other telecommunications channels has stimulated an unprecedented degree of innovation with distance education in post-secondary institutions.

Research into distance education is in its infancy, but a number of key questions for developmental educators have already emerged, such as:

- How can distance education effectively implement an individualized (and often open entry/open exit) environment, such as that found in many developmental studies programs?
- How can learners' motivation to participate in developmental studies work be established and maintained?
- How can we establish and maintain a successful community of learners on-line?
- If we accept that no medium of instructional delivery is best for all learners, what is the profile of the successful user of developmental studies services when delivered by distance education?
- How can campus-based and distance education service delivery models be combined to effectively reach, hold and teach developmental studies learners?

These questions are of critical importance not only to developmental educators at the member institutions of the League, but also for the development of successful implementation models for

PLATO® on the Internet. This research is intended to advance the state of the art in both distance education and developmental studies, and it will help guide the evolution of PLATO on the Internet as well as its effective use by developmental educators.

This preliminary report summarizes the goals and design of the study. A final report will be published by the League for Innovation as a monograph and multimedia CD-ROM, early in 2000. The authors expect to present a preliminary report at the ERAER Conference, and a full report at the League's Innovations 2000 conference. Results from a collateral study of learning community interaction, conducted by Les Moller, are expected to be reported later in the year.

STUDY DESIGN

The study was conducted in the Fall semester of 1999, with preparatory work in the preceding summer. It was planned as coordinated action research, undertaken by 9 community colleges (see Table 1) and coordinated by the League, with support provided by PLATO. Each participating institution implemented developmental studies programs for mathematics using PLATO on the Internet. The colleges were encouraged, but not required, to exploit PLATO on the Internet as a distance education tool. Each college's implementation model was planned in advance, and all were coordinated to allow comparison of the key data needed to answer the research questions. We chose mathematics for the study, because its content is the most standardized across institutions, the need is greatest, and high-quality measures of learning are widely used and understood.

TABLE 1. Participating Community Colleges

Central Florida Community College, Ocala, FL
Eastfield College—DCCCD, Dallas, TX
Delta College, University Center, MI
Kapiolani Community College, Honolulu, HI
Kirkwood Community College, Cedar Rapids, IA
Miami-Dade Community College, Miami, FL
Moraine Valley Commuity College, Palos Hills, IL
Santa Fe Community College, Gainesville, FL
Sinclair Community College, Dayton, OH

A list of descriptive attributes was designed by which to profile each of the 9 programs. These were used to guide development of instructor and learner questionnaires. The categories of attributes were:

Learner characteristics

Program goals

- Program structure
- Instructor role
- Interaction in the learner community
- Curriculum components and structure
- Instructional management
- Usage/participation pattern for on-line resources, including PLATO on the Internet
- Usage/participation pattern for off-line resources, such as on-campus individual and group activities

Dependent variables for the study were:

- Tested performance gains (tests varied by institution; most used the CPT at least as an entry/screening test).
- Subjective reactions by learners and instructors
- Learner completion rate

The success in establishing and maintaining an effective community of learners is widely believed to be an important determinant of success in any learning environment, and it is especially an issue in distance learning (Moller, 1998) and with developmental studies learners. For this reason, the study incorporated learner questionnaires developed by Moller, and designed to tap attitudes toward the community experienced, and degree of participation in community-oriented aspects of the courses. Since this aspect of the research is part of a larger coordinated effort by Moller, the data will be analyzed and reported separately from the main study.

Experience has shown that there is a large "learning curve" for both instructors and technical support personnel in implementing any distance education program. To begin this learning process, participating faculty attended a workshop to plan their implementations and learn about PLATO on the Internet. We further recommended that each site begin with a small-scale trial implementation over the Summer of 1999, involving perhaps 5-10 learners over a period of 4-6 weeks. The main goal of this trial implementation was to allow instructors and technical support people to gain familiarity with the technology and courseware of PLATO on the Internet and whatever supporting technologies are used. It should be noted that not all participants were able to complete the trial implementation.

To avoid the "Hawthorne effect," we required that the programs be in place for one full semester after initial trial orientation by instructors.

To allow for adequate statistical power, we recommended that each site's main implementation in the Fall semester plan for program completion by at least 25 learners. Because non-completion is a known problem in developmental studies programs, and a significant dependent variable of the study, we recommended that 50-75 learners per site will need to be recruited at the start of the program. Because timing of the study created some problems recruiting students to participate, most colleges were unable to follow this recommendation. Thus, statistical power of the analysis is expected to be a study limitation.

CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS: SOME INITIAL CONJECTURES

At this writing, data collection is nearing completion, but analysis has yet to begin. Nonetheless, our informal observations as the study has progressed has led us to some initial conjectures about the factors which are likely to be the most important determinants of success in distance education developmental studies programs. We will discuss these probable success factors briefly here, and elaborate on them further in the conference presentation.

RECRUITING AND COUNSELING

Community colleges using PLATO have commented that as many as half of their new enrollees need some kind of developmental studies work. Yet, less than half avail themselves of on-campus services. Distance education and the flexibility of a computer-based approach may be desirable for many learners for whom conventional classroom-based approaches are undesirable, but clearly it is a significant challenge to identify and recruit these learners. In our study, colleges tried various approaches, and results have varied.

ORIENTATION

Even in a distance learning environment, instructors have found that an in-person (usually on-campus) orientation is critical. The developmental studies class is often the first college experience for the learners, and may be the first academic experience in many years. It is important to orient the learners to the purpose and structure of the developmental studies program. In addition, it is important to orient learners to the technology.

TECHNICAL SUPPORT

Before implementation, the college must work out solutions for installation, system configuration, security, and Internet access, for instructors and for learners. In the first few weeks of a course, it is particularly important to have a local "hotline" for technical support, as learners overcome the vagaries of modem access to the Internet, the operating system, and the courseware itself. Backing this up needs to be adequate on-call technical support at the campus level and from the software vendors involved.

EASY ACCESS

While some learners were able to study at home or at work, others were not, for a variety of reasons. Thus, many participating schools chose to deliver via campus computer clusters, as an alternative or as the primary means of delivery. Availability of a range of options for access seemed to be necessary in order to assure that access to the Internet was not an impediment.

ADMINISTRATION SUPPORT

Distance education is inherently a team effort. It usually requires close work by two or more faculty, as well as the campus IS service. Regulations on faculty work load and training need to be appropriate to distance education, and academic policies affecting learners must be appropriate to the distance education/developmental studies/open entry-open exit program structures. Accomplishing such changes requires aggressive administrative support of the effort.

FACULTY COMMITMENT AND TRAINING

The obverse of administrative support is faculty support and training. Distance education and technology-based teaching each have their own learning curves. They require faculty participating to take risks, and to make a potentially large time commitment to make the solution work. Distance education is often observed to require double the faculty time, on an ongoing basis, as conventional classroom instruction. For these reasons, faculty commitment and training are critical.

LEARNER TIME STRUCTURE

Developmental studies learners often have many demands on their time, and find it difficult to manage their time. It's possible that the options offered by a distance education environment will help some learners, but make time management more difficult for others. Thus, we expect that one of the important success factors will be the ability of the faculty to use the data collection and reporting power of PLATO to proactively identify those learners who may need additional counseling and support surrounding time management.

HIGH QUALITY INSTRUCTION

The target learners for developmental studies, typically do not do well in conventional classroom environments. Computer-based methods offer an alternative. However, the most common tools for distance education lead the instructors to simply create "on-line textbooks" with any instructional interaction and feedback relegated to periodic e-mail and chat room exchanges. Highly interactive instruction, such as PLATO, offers an alternative to the "on-line textbook." Particularly for developmental studies learners, this is expected to be an important success factor.

ALIGNMENT

When the distance education solution involves a variety of learning resources, then it is important that they "fit together" in the learner's mind. Doing this requires that the resources be characterized in terms of the curriculum objectives, and then selected and "synchronized" on a daily or weekly basis. The resulting alignment must be clear both to the instructor and the learner. This process of alignment is especially important in a sequential content area such as math.

INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT

Distance education using a system such as PLATO can be highly individualized. Operating in an open entry/open exit structure creates additional requirement for individualization. The administrative overhead associated with tracking progress of each individual learner's progress, making appropriate prescriptions for what to study next, and "flagging" learners who need immediate faculty intervention, is substantial. We believe that faculty who maximized the instructional management power of PLATO on the Internet will have achieved the best results.

ASSESSMENT

Any developmental studies program should involve a carefully planned system of placement testing, progress testing, and cumulative post-testing and portfolio assessment. Since the learners often come in with a very uneven profile of skill gaps, there is a strong case to be made for individualization based on the placement testing. Most of the colleges chose to use a variety of assessment procedures in their programs. In distance learning, test security is an issue, which participating colleges reacted to in various ways.

LEARNING COMMUNITY

As discussed above, establishing a community of learners is important to any learning experience. For developmental studies learners, the issues are particularly acute, because their past classroom experiences have often been negative. The participating colleges took varying approaches to the issues of building a community. We expect that success in this area will be a major factor controlling course completion rate – often a problem in developmental studies.

SUMMARY

Distance education is revolutionizing much of post-secondary education, but there it is not clear which developmental studies learners can successfully use this option, or what it will take to meet their needs. Successful developmental studies programs on campus often have a closely integrated array of support services, and there is a long track record of successful individualized study using PLATO. The purpose of this study is to see how colleges can create a comparable solution in a distance education environment. The aim is to combine "high tech" with "high touch," with the hope of serving learners who otherwise would not be reached by campus-based solutions. The nine participating colleges are using a wide variety of implementation models, in conjunction with PLATO on the Internet. Results they are obtaining vary substantially. By comparing their experience, we hope to identify the critical success factors for a successful developmental studies program for math, in a distance education environment.

REFERENCES

Boylan, H, R., & Saxon, D. P. (1998). The origin, scope and outcomes of developmental education in the 20th Century. In J. L. Higbee & P. L. Dwinell (Eds.), *Developmental education: Preparing successful college students*. Columbia, SC: University of South Carolina, National Resource Center for the First-Year Experience & Students in Transition.

McCabe, R. H., & Day, P. R. (Eds.). (1998). Developmental education: A Twenty-First Century social and economic imperative. Mission Viejo, CA: The League for Innovation in the Community and The College Board.

Moller, L. (1998). Designing communities of learners for asynchronous distance education. *Educational Technology Research and Development, 46*(4), 115-122.

Stella Perez, League for Innovation in the Community College and Working Class Software, Inc., 2142 E. Willow Wick Rd., Gilbert, AZ. Stella@wcsoftware.com, www.wcssoftware.com, www.league.org

Wellesley R. Foshay, PLATO Education TRO Learning, Inc., 4660 W. 77th St., Edina, MN 55435. Rfoshay@plato.com, www.plato.com

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

LEARNING AND COLLABORATING FOR ADULT LITERACY EDUCATION

Alisa Phillips

ABSTRACT

This paper is based on research that I conducted with an adult literacy campaign in one educational district in the Dominican Republic. The adult literacy movement promotes inter-institutional collaboration as a necessary component for advancing adult education. The purpose of this research was to gain an understanding of what stakeholders have learned through their experience of collaborating together in this campaign.

In this experience, collaborating networks and relationships are very interconnected with stakeholders' learning. Collaboration is manifested through human interactions, emotional expression, volunteerism, resource sharing, and connections people make to common experiences. Learning is important for collaboration because it implies critical analysis and reflection on the past and future. Participants in this study analyzed and reflected on issues ranging from traumatic to rewarding educational experiences. Students and facilitators connect from their daily interactions and common experiences of living in their community. Facilitators, field staff, and program affiliates relate to their shared knowledge and experience working with adults. The most important lesson that can be gleaned from this experience is that all stakeholders can contribute to the development of their society; therefore, all members of civil society have to continue looking for ways to seek meaningful collaboration with each other.

BACKGROUND

The Dominican Republic exhibits all of the flavor of Caribbean and Latin American lifestyle, with its beautiful beaches, merengue and salsa, a rich African and Indian heritage, a strong Catholic tradition, and an alarming rate of adult illiteracy. To address this issue, the country has once again embarked on a National Literacy Campaign to educate low-income adults for this new millenium. The purpose of this research was to gain an understanding of what stakeholders have learned through their experience of collaborating together in this campaign.

There have been seven national literacy campaigns in the Dominican Republic since the 1940s, which have been designed, implemented, and managed by top officials in the Central Government. Due to the lack of concern for participation at the local level, the didactic materials that were used in the campaigns were not grounded in poor people's realities, thus viewing the learners as objects in the process, rather than subjects of their own learning. Because of this history there is a pervading skepticism toward literacy campaigns; nevertheless, there is a fresh new outlook embedded in this current campaign.

A new vision for adult education in the Dominican Republic was put forth during a national meeting in 1997 convened by the Department of Education (DED). The education system in the Dominican Republic had been based on a traditional, teacher-oriented pedagogy. To effect changes in adult education, the DED understood that a complete transformation of the way in which they viewed education was necessary. This new paradigm seeks to address the whole person and community as unique and dynamic entities that have the potential to empower themselves and their

---

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

communities. To implement this new vision, different commissions, comprised of various sectors of civil society, were formed to develop a curriculum proposal for adult education. The intent of this proposal was not to stifle the flexibility and informality that is inherent in adult education by designing a rigid curriculum, but to provide general guidelines to ensure quality education for disadvantaged adults. By creating a certain amount of structure, this not only makes the statement that adult education should have a place in the official educational system, but also presents other challenges for keeping adult education dynamic and responsive.

Running parallel to this process, was the National Literacy Campaign that was guided by the National Commission for Literacy, composed of public and private sector members. The study I conducted deals specifically with this campaign and the adult education system as a whole. Although the central office in the capital has the primary responsibility of overseeing the implementation of the campaign, the regional and district offices (field offices) are responsible for implementing the campaign's philosophy and programs at the local level in conjunction with other sectors. Inter-sectoral collaboration, decentralization, diversity, flexibility, and sustainability uniquely characterize this campaign. This literacy campaign began as a completely volunteer movement that encouraged community members to become trained facilitators by the DED. All of the training and curricula reflect specific adult learning theories and strategies designed to empower learners and relate to their experiences. There are three programs through which the DED conducts the literacy instruction-- Alfabeticicemos Ahora, Programa de Alfabetización y Educación Básica (PRALEB), and ABCDespañol. Although there are three basic programs in execution, I will primarily focus on PRALEB and Alfabeticemos Ahora because there are more experiences in these programs.

METHODOLOGY, DATA SOURCES, THEORY

I was assigned to the region of La Vega where I conducted a total of twenty-seven interviews with facilitators, groups of learners, school directors, field staff (regional and district-level staff), program directors and managers, and other outside program supporters. The regional field office of La Vega chose to focus this research on the experience of one district, 06-05. To study issues in adult literacy education and collaboration, it was very important to approach the research process in a participatory manner, in particular because the movement emphasizes participation from all sectors of society. Participatory inquiry emphasizes the importance of participation for helping people to claim ownership of a process and to feel valued and empowered in that process (Chambers, 1997). I, therefore, suggested using qualitative evaluation and research methods, which would allow for an open-ended process, where the stakeholders could discuss issues that were important to them. Throughout this entire process two field staff representatives served as co-researchers, providing invaluable input and support to the study.

There are certain philosophies that are driving the movement, such as constructivism in education, and collaboration for education. The theoretical themes that can be drawn from this study are, therefore, directly related to the educational philosophies. The pedagogy is embedded primarily in the teachings of the adult educator Paulo Freire, which rejects the "banking" system of education, and celebrates the creation and transformation of meaning so that it is relevant to adult students (Freire, 1983).

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

There is a lot that can be learned through this experience, however, to really develop an understanding of what stakeholders have learned, it is important to understand the networks that are formed, and the relationships that are built. In the experience of La Vega, collaborating networks and relationships are very interconnected with stakeholders' learning. Essentially, participants' learning is influenced by the social interactions they have with each other (Deshler & Kiely, 1995). As was indicated, the adult literacy movement holds inter-sectoral participation as a key component in the goal of educating illiterate adults. The issue is how does participation take place in the context of such a widespread movement? In this study, the participants shared many stories that helped to shed light on their role as participants in this literacy campaign. To these participants, civil society participation is essentially about fostering contacts and relationships.

Education requires building relationships with many individuals and institutions; therefore, it should be more process-oriented, than product-oriented. It is not merely about producing graduates with specific skills, but rather about promoting critical thinking and life-long learning in people. All of the individuals that participated in this study have had meaningful experiences with stakeholders in the movement. The students have developed relationships with the facilitators in their communities, but have also interacted with program directors, field staff, and outside program promoters. It is a two-way process of fostering relationships for learning, and learning to foster relationships. One of the directors in La Vega describes the nature of this iterative process. "It's a program that makes you share life with local people. It's a program that makes you socialize with other sectors. . . . You learn to work together with others and you learn something fundamentally important. You learn how to be happy." He has learned how to work with a diverse group of people, from students to top-level management, and through the process of connecting with these people, has learned how to be satisfied.

One cannot discuss the importance of relationship building without acknowledging the role emotions play throughout this process. The affective dimension of adult education is visible inside and outside of the classroom. Adult education is about the whole person, therefore, adult educators must acknowledge all that characterizes their students--their fears, joys, disappointments, and struggles. The facilitators in this movement are trained to incorporate social issues into their class discussions, as part of their literacy instruction. One of the literacy groups learns about "AIDS, all of the sicknesses that water produces . . . and how to give food to children." These represent only some of the issues that pervade many poor communities throughout La Vega and other areas in the Dominican Republic. In the process of promoting these critical discussions, facilitators also learn through the interactions they have with their students. Several of the facilitators described this exchange between facilitator and student as being very emotionally and spiritually rewarding. "It feels me with more love. I feel good because I feel that I am doing something for my brothers. If I give them something it is because God has given me." This facilitator exercises her spiritual commitment to God through literacy instruction and, in return receives satisfaction. Because facilitators and learners are in constant contact with one another, it is inevitable that they should feel a strong sense of love, commitment and responsibility toward each other.

The intangible gains that facilitators receive from teaching are very important to note because these facilitators devote themselves to this work on a volunteer basis. Even though some of the facilitators now receive an incentive, this small amount does not reward them for the long hours and hard work that they commit to every day. These volunteer teachers are usually well known to their communities because they have already been assuming a leadership role in the development of their community. The local school directors, who also play a crucial role in the implementation of these literacy programs, are often the people who recruit these volunteer teachers. They work closely with them in support of the adult literacy movement. One of the directors describes the role that community leaders play in the adult literacy movement. "Always in distinct neighborhood sectors of our country there exists innate leaders . . . who are willing to work for others. . . . We gather . . . these people who are interested in providing literacy specifically. . . . We ask them because they are people of service to the community if they want to do one more service." In this sense, it is easy to call on these individuals because they are accustomed to serving. The facilitators are individuals who are concerned about the welfare of the people with whom they live. These leaders demonstrate the true spirit of service because they give expecting little in return. Although many of these leaders are perhaps, natural born leaders, there are some that have learned to be leaders because they want a better life for their community. In any case, it is essential to the health of any community to have leaders that are raised up either inherently or by necessity. It is not so important that there be innate leaders, but rather that those who do lead have a giving heart for their community.

Community facilitators share many of the same experiences as their students. They connect with their reality because they too live in the same conditions. Their common experiences are perhaps the reason why the bond between learner and facilitator is so strong. The strong connection that the facilitator has with the students enables the students to trust and confide in their teacher. In adult literacy learning there is tremendous gratification, but alongside those joys come the pains and fears of students' struggles. Many of the students come into their new learning environment under stressful situations and with very negative experiences in education. They sometimes come to the literacy group running from their jobs, having to leave children at home or sometimes bringing them to class. These are the more obvious constraints that adult students have to face; however, the inconspicuous issues are the ones that can really obstruct adult's learning. One of the entrenched obstacles that adult education is encountering is the effects that past educational history may have on the students. Several individuals, including students, facilitators, field staff and a school director referred to the oppressive educational tactics that were utilized to keep students in school during the dictatorship period. During General Trujillo's dictatorship, students and educators had to interact with each other under very repressive conditions. "Guards during this time would put people in jail. They would take people who did not know how to read out of their houses," forcing them to go to school. The policy of that period was "to school or to jail." Going to school was something that was perceived to be punishment for not knowing how to read or write. It was not a place where people wanted to go, but where they had to go in order to escape prison. This had to be a very stressful time for both students and teachers because there was no joy in learning, but only fear for their lives. Learning was not associated with liberation, but with imprisonment. It is important that this part of history be discussed because it affects adults' lives today.

Educators are openly acknowledging what happened in their history, and dealing with the consequences of those events. Not only are large-scale historical events important in shaping students' views of education, but also personal educational experiences. Adult literacy learners often come from very harsh economic conditions that have often forced them to leave school to begin work at an early age. One of the students shares a very powerful story about why she did not learn how to read or write. "We were the two oldest. My father worked in agriculture, planting tobacco, corn, everything, and when it was tobacco time we went to school, Monday and Friday...Of course, what we knew, we had already forgotten. . . . My mother wanted us to go . . . all of us, we are twelve. . . . The only one that does not know how to read letters is me and the older one." Because she and her older brother could only attend school on Monday's and Friday's during the tobacco crop season, neither one learned how to read or write well. Unfortunately, there are many other students who can tell this same story.

The need for more resources in adult education is echoed throughout each of these stories. These resources include financial, material, and human resources. The networks that adult educators build depend on all types of these resources, but most importantly the human interactions. In many ways the impact and sustainability of adult education can be attributed to the human interactions that are key to forming linkages and networks. These networks are often comprised of many different members of civil society who voluntarily commit to serving disadvantaged adults. Some of the stakeholders that were interviewed believe that the volunteer nature of adult education is its greatest asset. "That is where the strength of our work is. If it was paid work, it would be a great weakness." Many unpaid adult educators devote their life to working with adults. Because adult education does not receive much funding support it has always had to learn to survive with few financial resources. In some sense, for adult educators to be successful they must feel a commitment to their work that goes beyond any financial compensation that is received.

Although adult education in the Dominican Republic has flourished under adverse conditions, having little financial and human support, this does not mean that it should continue to work under the same conditions. There is tremendous need for more quantity and a better quality of support for the continued success of adult education. One of the most eminent concerns that surfaced in this study was the lack of infrastructure that exists for adult education. Students who participate in literacy instruction usually attend night classes, which makes it difficult for them to see under the dim lighting conditions in some of the schools. Furthermore, there is often no electricity at night in La Vega, which contributes to the poor infrastructure of the adult education system. Adult students also need schools that are appropriated to fit their needs. The Director of adult education describes the inadequacy of the current situation. "Adults go to elementary, and high schools. Sometimes they have to sit in the little chairs that their children sit in during the morning or afternoon." These conditions are certainly not an ideal learning environment. In some cases, parents have to go to school under the same conditions as their children; however, these conditions are not appropriate for them. Adult educators and students need the right rooms and buildings, with the appropriate furniture and lighting for adults. Even though adult educators are accustomed to being responsive and flexible as part of their ideology, they should not be the only ones that are responding to adults' needs. This is why the literacy campaign is attempting to build relationships with other sectors.

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

There are many lessons and questions that emerge based on the adult literacy experience in La Vega. Inter-sectoral collaboration is a very useful idea to employ; however, it is an intricate task to accomplish. Relationships are essential to civil society collaboration in La Vega. This collaboration is manifested through human interactions, emotional expression, volunteerism, resource sharing, and connections people make to common experiences. These summarize the essence of only some of the factors that should be considered in any collaborative process. Learning is important for collaboration because it implies some level of critical analysis and reflection on the past and the future. The participants in this study analyzed and reflected on a gamut of issues ranging from traumatic to rewarding educational experiences. Students and facilitators share a strong bond from their daily interactions and common experiences of living in their community. Facilitators, field staff, and program affiliates relate to their shared knowledge and experience working with adults. Top-level program directors and field staff exchange ideas on how they might better perform their work. The types of bonds and relationships that are built are endless. There is a range of potential contacts that is inherent in adult education, but is not always visible to outsiders. Sometimes these potential relationships are not even known to insiders. These possibilities are what add dynamism to the field of adult education, but also make it a difficult and somewhat precarious field in which to work.

This study illustrates that collaboration is essential for the field of adult education, as well as community development. Education and development have been viewed as dichotomies for too long. This Dominican experience provides insight into the linkages that can bridge these two fields. Although both fields emphasize the need for flexibility and responsiveness as core tenets for success, perhaps the essential link to both fields is in the range of possible relationships to be discovered. In the future, it would be useful to explore how these two fields can collaborate more effectively through the relationships that they have built and continue to build. One of the issues embedded in this literacy movement that may have even greater implications for both fields is the notion of institutionalized adult education. The question is can adult education effectively progress if it is institutionalized? Adult education has thrived in non-formal channels, relying on a strong volunteer constituency, and non-formal knowledge and experience. Nevertheless, the field needs the resources of the formal education system, and other institutions in civil society. If adult education is adopted within the framework of the main educational system, it may be co-opted into a new ideology. This is the perpetual dilemma that grassroots educators and development practitioners confront; therefore, it is worth further research into the risks and benefits of having a formal adult education institution. Finally, the most important lesson that can be gleaned from this Dominican experience is that all stakeholders can contribute to the development of their society, therefore, all members of civil society have to continue looking for ways to seek meaningful collaboration with each other.

REFERENCES

Chambers, R. (1997). *Whose reality counts? Putting the first last*. London: Intermediate Technology Publications.

Deshler, D., & Kiely, E. (1995). Traditions of practice in adult education. *Facilitating adult learning: Inservice education for cooperative extension* (pp.15-46). Ithaca, NY: Cornell University, Department of Education, Instructional Media Services.

Freire, P. (1983). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York: Continuum.

Alisa Phillips, Graduate Student, 12 Bean Hill Lane, Ithaca, NY 14850

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

ADULT EDUCATION AS VOCATIONAL TRAINING: THE CASE OF BRIGADES IN BOTSWANA

Wapula Nelly Raditloaneng

ABSTRACT

One of the distinct features of any kind of educational system is the way it relates to the world of work. As part of the overall mission to support technical education, the government of Botswana provides financial and technical support to all brigades in the country (Government of Botswana, 1993a).

Vocational education in Botswana should be understood to comprise both education for production and education with production. Vocational education and training in the brigades is targeted at meeting the individual needs and needs of the economy. As an effort tc enhance the effectiveness of the brigades in meeting the needs of the economy, a feasibility study, mandated by the Department of vocational education and training, and sponsored by the Letlhakeng brigade committee, was carried out in March, 1997.The study findings note that brigades can be used as institutions to enhance socioeconomic functions of adult vocational education not only in Botswana but other countries. Brigades combine both education and work.

INTRODUCTION

Vocational education and training are essential ingredients in producing a workforce relevant to meeting the needs of Botswana's economy. A distinctive feature of vocational education is the brigade. This is a small community organization (rural based) that offers skilled level training and also engages in income generating production activities and rural development projects. Over 75% of Batswana live in areas designated rural. Brigades are part of the cogs in which adult vocational education is embedded. Each brigade is an autonomous community – controlled body though the government is represented on the board of trustees.

Pioneered by Patrick Van Rensberg, a South African exile, the history of brigades in Botswana can be traced from 1965 when the government of Botswana started to respond to the problem of standard seven school leavers who could not get admitted to junior high schools. The first brigade was established in Serowe (major village) in 1969 (Youngman, 1995). This marked a roadmap for early brigades in some of the major villages in the country. The government of Botswana is committed to setting up brigades, vocational training centers, polytechnics, and auto trades training schools to contribute significantly to enhancement of skills and employment creation by engaging students in income generating activities. In rural areas the brigade movement continues to be used to provide access to vocational training. This is framed by "Education with Production" through vocational training at the semi skilled level, income generation production activities, and rural development projects. Countrywide, there are about 41 brigades that offer traditional building courses and the latest computer technology programs.

In 1977, the Brigade Development Center (BRIDEC) was established within the Ministry of Education to coordinate brigade activities. The Department of Vocational Education and Training (DVET) serves as a focal point through which all Government aid for training is channeled. As communities own brigades, they can respond much faster in providing the required training for communities (Kwape, 1997).

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

Tables 1 and 2 below indicate total enrolments in brigades and total training capacity as the number of school leavers increase each year. Table 1 depicts that the total enrolment of trainees has gone up since 1978. Table 2 indicates the total vocational training capacity. Vocational training is based on the assumption that trainees need skills to get employed or do a better job.

Table 1.

Total Enrolments of Trainees in the Brigades, 1978-1992, Botswana

1978	1980	1982	1984	1986	1988	1990	1992
950	600	650	620	854	1111	1497	1805

Source: Government of Botswana, 1993a, p. 197.

Table 2

Current Vocational Training Capacity, 1992 – 1993

Apprenticeship contracts, 1992.	429	1250
VTC 2 year full time training, 1992 - 1993	862	862
Brigades, 1993	1089	2128
Total	2380	4240

Source: Madirelo Training and Testing Center (MTTC), Department of Technical Education, BRIDEC, Gaborone, Botswana.

THE STUDY

The feasibility study was mandated by the Department of vocational education and training (DVET). Since the adult education department of Botswana has a stake in vocational education, an invitation was extended to the department and two staff members conducted the study. In my capacity as a member of the department, I was part of the team of two researchers who conducted the study. The study lasted two weeks beginning March 10th to 24th, 1997. The study report had to be submitted to DVET for the brigade committee application to be assessed.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. Why do you need a brigade?
2. What is the feasibility of establishing a brigade in this village?
3. What are the perceived benefits?
4. What courses would you like the brigade to offer and why? (Raditloaneng & Tlhabiwe, 1997)

METHODS

The feasibility study used a variety of qualitative and participatory research methods. Data collection instruments were a document analysis, a semi structured interview schedule, direct observation and group discussions. Researchers found it important to solicit free and independent opinions, participated in transact walks with villagers to view, inspect and verify the existence of some infrastructure developments laid in preparation for the brigade. A semi structured interview schedule was administered directly by the two researchers. The researchers conducted group discussions with the brigade committee and local influential people to find out what functions they considered the brigade would serve. Local influential people were interviewed to solicit their opinions on the proposed brigade.

DATA SOURCES

The research team gathered relevant demographic data from the 1991 census, technical reports, and opinions of villagers in the catchment area in order to make a case for the brigade. Information for the feasibility study was collected from about fifty participants as follows: 1) Sub-District Authorities (District Officer, District Officer Development, Assistant Council Secretary, Chiefs or their deputies); 2) VDC members, school principals, deputies or, where necessary, senior teachers in all the primary schools in the catchment area; 3) the head teacher of the Community Junior Secondary School in Letlhakeng; 4) the Letlhakeng Brigade Committee members; and 5) Councilors in Letlhakeng and the catchment area--Ditshegwane, Khudumelapye, Malwelwe, Mantshwabisi, and Monwane.

FINDINGS

The report of the feasibility has to be submitted to DVET for any brigade application to be considered. Based on findings of this study, the Letlhakeng brigade committee application was approved and a brigade for the area was registered. Acquisition of skills through the brigade movement can help develop business skills and attitudes for self-employment. Brigades have the potential to fulfill the socioeconomic functions of adult education and learning through applications of adults' brigade experiences to real life situations. The capacity of the brigade movement need to be strengthened for these institutions to adequately provides vocational training as Botswana approaches the 21st century. The greatest challenge is to make learning a part of the Botswana economy development process.

WHY DO YOU NEED A BRIGADE?

School dropouts: Interviewees, especially with those in the teaching profession and Village Development Committee members, noted a large number of idle school dropouts from primary and junior secondary schools. Brigades therefore minimize the problem of a large number of idle youth that are not readily absorbed by senior secondary schools.

WHAT IS THE FEASIBILITY OF ESTABLISHING A BRIGADE IN THIS VILLAGE?

It was unanimously agreed at meetings with the research team that the village of Letlhakeng and procedures followed by representatives would make it feasible for the village and the catchment area to have a brigade. Letlhakeng by virtue of its size and location would co-ordinate meetings concerning the brigade.

Interviewees badly needed a brigade to be established for their catchment area because they strongly believed vocational education could manage the crisis of idle school leavers. Based on success stories from brigades in other parts of the country, interviewees perceived brigades as crucial for the performance of social and economic functions of adult education.

Social functions. What are the perceived benefits? The proposed brigade, like all other brigades in the country, would solve the problems of school dropouts discussed earlier, lack of skills, and lack of services:

1. The need to absorb the students remains significantly at Junior high school (JC) level, hence the need for an institution such as the proposed brigade. Brigades had to jump from targeting standard 7 leavers to junior certificate (three years after basic primary school leaving certificate or junior high) and finally Cambridge school certificate (final two years of secondary school or senior high school) as demands for further education rise.

2. Lack of skills: The ability to do something or gainful employment to secure a source of livelihood is very important. Skill training is therefore very important to prepare recipients for jobs.

3. Lack of services: Letlhakeng and its catchment area lack services such as plumbing, welding, milling, bakery, and fabrication, which were obtainable mainly from major villages and the capital city of Gaborone. The proposed brigade would help provide some of the essential but unavailable services.

4. Universal progression: Standard Seven leavers are promoted to junior certificate even if they get unsatisfactory results. The proposed brigade can help primary and junior school leavers who otherwise have nowhere to go.

WHAT COURSES WOULD YOU LIKE THE BRIGADE TO OFFER?

Brigades offer three-year courses for primary school leavers, which lead to trade test C. The brigade committee emphasized that they had learnt about the usefulness of Brigades from other areas in Botswana. Furthermore, the Committee expressed a desire to have a brigade, which would offer the following traits that would help graduates to acquire social skills: (a) building, (b) carpentry, (c) auto- mechanic, (d) welding and fabrication, (e) academic upgrading of form II leavers and other school dropouts, and (f) commercial and computer studies.

Economic functions. In addition to social skills, the Brigade Committee together with Village Development Committee would like the proposed Brigade to include the following production activities:

1. Forestry and horticultural production.
2. Textiles for production of school uniforms for sale to all the local schools.
3. Production.
4. Extension service.

Traits training offered by brigades would equip trainees with employable skills in fields such as carpentry, building, welding, and fabrication. Graduates would not only wait to be employed but could start their own businesses and employ others with required skills. This could help to solve the problem of unemployment.

Constraints. Brigades are clouded with a lot of constraints even though they do provide badly needed skills training. Historically, Batswana concentrated on formal academic education. Technical and vocational careers are still regarded as second-rate alternative; hence brigades are marginalized in government funding and quality of skills acquired. This has created a barrier of inferiority in brigades and polytechnics. Perhaps part of the reasons for this inferiority complex could be that both brigades and Vocational Training Centers offer training from the lowest level - standard 7 or basic primary education (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 1997). The ability of learners to put into practice their learning experiences from brigade schools is a notable concern.

The need for a coherent system of education articulated in "Education for Kagisano" was articulated but not as a policy statement. The brigade movement has continued on a piecemeal and unevenly resourced sector. Conflict exists between expectations and reality for several reasons: 1) Training is uneven in scope and development, 2) training is uneven in quality of training provided, 3) training is under investment, and 4) staff are inadequately trained. There is no unified policy that governs the sector.

There are weaknesses in curriculum and quality of trained teachers. Qualifications and progression paths are not clearly articulated. There is a need for more integration--standardization, coordination, and stronger links with employers. Financial and management crisis in the brigades in the 1970s constrained most of them from reaching targets. Education and training covers 10 traits but the majority is in building and carpentry. Brigades have shown great potential for basic level craft, extension and community development activities. This is done through a three-year program for standard 7 leavers (Molosiwa, 1999). This potential should be sustained so that brigades can make great impact in the country's development.

IMPLICATIONS FOR ADULT EDUCATION

Vocational education serves as a bridge between the cognitive and behaviorist streams of adult education. The cognitive domain stresses the mental processes as learning takes place. The behaviorist approach, based on the works of Skinner, argues that learning is meant to ensure competency and specified behavioral outcomes such as passing theoretical and practical examinations for each of the traits. Brigades originally targeted standard seven leavers though this has extended to meet the unmet needs of students at a higher level. Where lack of vocational skills is the main issue, vocational education is a fitting remedy for students to ultimate join the labor market. However, the main frustration is that not all skilled persons are able to produce. There are many factors that come into play. Examples include funding and market constraints. These have several implications for Adult basic education.

First, the academic background of students is limited to reading, writing, and arithmetic (the three Rs). This raises serious questions of who should be the players in equipping students with basic adult education skills. The role of adult education cannot be overemphasized especially in curriculum design and teaching. In practice, a behaviorist approach is the most suitable strategy for brigades. At basic primary school level, students need somewhere to go, even if that may not be the best place to be. Some may not even have any well-defined goals for career development. Curriculum and assessment strategies are teacher centered. Evaluation of students is framed within written theoretical examinations and practical work.

Second, vocational education and training in the brigades (theory and practice skills) is targeted at meeting both the individual and needs of the economy. The main benefit is that students gain production skills at least for those jobs where specific skills may be essential. Brigades have served as a symbol of adult learning and complement government effort in making productive skills training accessible to school leavers. Brigades involve applications of adults' brigade experiences to real life situations. I concur with Pring (1993) that the curriculum has to be relevant to industry and commerce. It is therefore based on external purposes that it is expected to serve. Students are expected to develop attitudes and dispositions such as entrepreneurship and enterprise. This means that the ability to apply skills depends not just on the ability to render the skills but other issues embedded in the politics, culture and social sectors of each country.

Third, practically, the study established that brigades are useful institutions to enhance socioeconomic functions of adult vocational education not only in Botswana but other countries. As brigade students develop voluntary individual choices, they develop their individual selves, undergo changes in attitudes and values, discover and develop skills, and ultimately make choices about their brigade experiences. For all traits, students are assessed on both practical and theoretical aspects of their training. Brigades combine study and work as framed by "Education for work for all." The emphasis is not so much on how the economy can use people but how people can develop the economy in out of school initiatives. Linking study and work provides a basis for students to improve their learning because they are able to put their theoretical experiences into practice (Van Rensburg, 1991). Skills acquired in brigades need to be put into effective use, otherwise students may relapse further and remain deskilled.

Jaspers (as cited in Jarvis, 1992) associates learning with the development of the self. Through continual learning, the individual becomes a self through a variety of learning processes in a culturally controlled social reality. By learning, people come to their selves. The mind, self and identity are learned in the social context. People primarily learn from their experience. As they develop individual choices, people develop their individual selves. As brigade students pursue their careers, they change, discover their individual selves and develop skills, attitudes, and values and make choices on what to do about their brigade experiences.

CONCLUSION

The ability of learners to put into practice their learning experiences from brigade schools is a notable concern. Brigades provide useful skills even though no formal evaluation of ex students' performance has been adequately documented. Without any skills training, youth cannot be expected to fully participate in gainful employment. Furthermore, unskilled teenagers engage in unruly behavior as a result of unemployment. Brigades provide essential services because of their emphasis on Education with Production. The *Revised National Commission on Education* (Government of Botswana, 1993b) emphasizes that

Brigades make an important contribution to the provision of basic level craft labor to the formal sector and have shown significant potential for extension and community development activities, many of which support the informal sector. They represent the most widely distributed training provision, with the largest enrolment of trainees. However, there is still a need to incorporate training, power and wider political issues in the curriculum.

As Kincheloe (1999) notes:

> Vocational education can no longer involve merely the attempt to adjust students to the culture of the workplace. Students emerging from a critical post-formal vocational education system are able to assess how difficult it is for vocational graduates to break into a particular workplace. (p. 252)

Each country interested in the brigade movement can construct its own reality about the purpose and functions of brigades and how these can be tailored to meet the socioeconomic learning needs of targeted populations. The study findings conclude that acquisition of vocational skills can help develop business values and attitudes for self-employment.

REFERENCES

Government of Botswana. (1993a). *Report of the National Commission on Education*. Gaborone, Botswana: Government Printer.

Government of Botswana. (1993b). *Revised National Commission on Education*. Gaborone, Botswana: Government Printer.

Jarvis, P. (1992). *Paradoxes of learning: On becoming an individual in society*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kincheloe, J. L. (1999). *How do we tell the workers? The socioeconomic foundations of work and vocational education*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Kwape, I. (1997). Access to education. In Botswana Society (Eds.), *Poverty and plenty: The Botswana experience* (pp. 209-230). Gaborone, Botswana: .Macmillan.

Molosiwa, R. (Ed.). (1999). *Botswana handbook*. Gaborone, Botswana: Department of Information and Broadcasting, Publicity unit.

Ministry of Finance and Development Planning. (1991). *National development plan 7*. Gaborone, Botswana: Government Printer.

Ministry of Finance and Development Planning. (1997). *National development plan 8*. Gaborone, Botswana: Government Printer.

Pring, R. (1993). Liberal education and vocational preparation. In R. Barrow & P. White (Eds.), *Beyond liberation education: Essays in honour of Paul Hirst* (pp. 49–78). London: Routledge.

Raditloaneng, W. N., & Tlhabiwe, O. M. (1997). *Report on the feasibility of conducting a brigade in Letlhakeng*. Gaborone, Botswana: University of Botswana, Adult Education Department.

Van Rensberg, P. (1991). Education for work for all. In S. Seisa & F. Youngman (Eds.), *Education for all in Botswana* (pp. 182-187). Gaborone, Botswana: Macmillan.

Youngman, F. (1995). Botswana country chronology of major events in adult education. In J. A. Draper (Ed.), *Country chronologies on adult education: Africa region* (pp. 26-32). Bellville: CACE Publications, University of the Western Cape.

Wapula Nelly Raditloaneng, 110A Maple Road, Eastview Terrace, State College, PA 16801.
wxr125@psu.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research conference, Penn State, University Park, PA March 16-18, 2000.

OUTCOMES OF FACULTY PARTICIPATION IN DISTANCE EDUCATION

Dehra W. Shafer

ABSTRACT

Distance education now offers universities not only the capability to serve audiences beyond their campuses but also the opportunity to re-examine the teaching-learning process. However, such changes are often met with resistance from an organizational culture whose beliefs are based on different assumptions about the purpose of teaching. In response, a major land-grant institution conducted a three-year project to address critical elements of the institutional culture if distance education were to become a mainstream activity. This paper reports results of a qualitative case study that describes the process of change that occurred in the knowledge, skills and attitudes of four faculty with respect to distance education specifically, and teaching in general, as a result of their participation.

Several recurring themes indicate there is a pattern to this process of change. Self-acknowledged change was an important emergent theme. The two most consistent themes were 1) a recognition of the importance of interaction as part of the instructional process, and 2) an increased knowledge of the benefits, and limitations, of the technology. Finally, the overarching emic construct was that the process of change is a continuum of experiences that leads to a final shift in one's conceptualization of distance education; one faculty called it moving from foundational teaching to "just in time" teaching.

INTRODUCTION

When I first heard Thomas Cyrs in 1990 speak about his faculty development program at New Mexico State University for teaching at a distance, I had my first "click" experience, "something of a sudden . . . epiphany as to the emotional depth or importance of an event" (Adler & Adler, 1994) that distance education could serve as a catalyst for improved teaching. More recently, serving as an associate project manager for the three-year project, I gleaned anecdotal evidence from the faculty that their participation changed the way they teach in the classroom as well as at a distance. Therefore, I believe this study will contribute to both a deeper understanding of current pedagogical issues in higher education as well as to a better understanding of the challenges presented by distance education as a result of increased opportunity for higher education faculty to teach via distance technology.

Successive reviews of the literature indicate that the outcomes and impact of faculty participation in distance education have not been widely researched. For example, of 225 articles reviewed in a literature search on distance education by Dillon and Walsh (1992), only twenty-four studies relating to faculty participation in distance education had been conducted. The majority of those studies examined faculty attitudes toward distance education. In a review of more recent literature, only two articles could be found that specifically addressed faculty *participation* in distance education. Both of those were prescriptive in nature. Tulloch (1996) offers seven principles for good practice in distance education. Olcott and Wright (1995) propose an institutional support framework to reduce barriers to faculty participation in distance education.

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

Further analysis of the literature identified four emerging themes running through the research about faculty participation in distance education:

1. faculty attitudes toward distance education;
2. faculty and administrators' perceptions of rewards for, and barriers to participation in distance education;
3. training and issues related to support;
4. administrative issues which includes administrators' attitudes toward distance education and institutional policies related to distance education.

Overall, the majority of the studies reviewed were descriptive and atheoretical; a few were prescriptive (Beaudoin, 1990; Gunawardena, 1990; Olcott & Wright, 1995); only two suggested theoretical frameworks for the research undertaken (Dillon & Walsh, 1992; Wolcott, 1995). Also, although only two articles alluded to the change process that faculty may experience when they engage in distance education (Beaudoin, 1990; Callus, 1982), a review of relevant "change" literature has been done (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Mezirow, 1981, 1994; Rogers, 1971, 1995) because of the results of this pilot study. As mentioned above, emergent themes from the study included:

1. change in attitude toward working with instructional design teams;
2. increased knowledge of the benefits, and limitations, of the technology;
3. self-acknowledged change regarding teaching.

The overarching emic construct that emerged from the study was that the process of change is a continuum of experiences that leads to a final shift in paradigm in a faculty's understanding of, and subsequent practice in distance education. That paradigm shift may impact a faculty member's classroom teaching as well.

FINDINGS

In support of the purpose of this paper—to describe the process of change that occurs in knowledge, skills and attitudes of faculty, with respect to distance education specifically and teaching in general, as a result of their participation in distance education—I found several recurring themes that indicate there is a pattern to the process of change through which faculty move as they participate in distance education. However, initially I observed that underlying the process was an openness to, or personal interest in changing that, according to Callas (1982), is critical. Each of the faculty showed evidence of this character trait in their interviews.

As mentioned previously, self-acknowledged change was an important emergent theme and readily obvious on the first read-through of transcriptions as well. However, not all faculty acknowledged change in all areas of learning. Faculty A, for example, commented on an expanded understanding of distance education: "Because I've been part of (this project) I've learned that what distance ed is now is not what it was. . . . I'm having to move my 'I think I know it all' down . . . just because of the things that I've heard."

Faculty A and Faculty B both reported changes in skill levels as a result of participating in the IDE project. Faculty B said that he is now able to do "all that PicTel stuff . . . the desktop video, the web page." Faculty A, with confidence, said she could teach a colleague "how to use the web . . . how to use the technology for support in instruction, especially tutorial support." However, Faculty B's self assessment of the overall change process was more holistic in nature. Faculty C, on the other hand, acknowledged a major change in attitude about distance education. She said, "Being involved (in the project) has changed my vision of what distance education really is." She went on to say that "what it means to me is pretty much any way we can accomplish instruction and learning (by any means) other than a classroom full of people with a teacher there all together at the same time. . . . That's exciting!" Finally, Faculty A also reported enhanced understanding of the political environment of distance education.

Further analysis of the data indicates that faculty also experienced other changes in knowledge, skills and attitudes, more subtle perhaps than those which they themselves articulated. One of those themes was a general understanding that the principles of effective distance education are the same as those for general education. As Faculty D said, "Good teaching is good teaching whether it's residence or at a distance . . .(that) understanding or heightened awareness (has) . . . been pointed out." Faculty B concurred.

The two most consistent—and related—themes that emerged from the data were 1) a recognition of the importance of interaction as part of the instructional process, and 2) an increased knowledge of the benefits, and limitations, of the technology.

Interaction in the instructional process functions in several ways: learner with content, learner with instructor, learner with other learners, and learner with the medium. Each of the faculty come out of the experience with an increased understanding of the importance of interaction with regard to some aspect of the learning transaction, but none of them commented on all aspects. Each, from his/her own point of view, however, got to the topic quickly during our conversations. Faculty D, for example, talked early in the interview about interaction as part of his teaching philosophy, and, when asked what he now knows that he didn't before, he was quick to say, "My course needs more interaction in it!"

Faculty C has developed in her mind a clear, pragmatic definition of interaction as a result of the design work on her project: "Interaction to me . . . works fundamentally in two ways, and that's the direction between learner and the instructor (and) the direction among learners." Faculty A, on the other hand, has come to understand interaction in a broader context.

For Faculty B, understanding how interaction works in the distance education environment was high on his list of concerns. The very first thing he said in the interview was, "I like to be engaged in an interactive, in a personal way with students." Later in our conversation it was apparent he had concerns about his ability to do so in the PictureTel environment. "It's a more complicated delivery system in some ways...there is something of a disconnect between me and the students." However, when I observed his class it also was apparent that he was making a concerted effort to provide for interaction between himself and the students as well as among the students in the class, and from our discussion afterwards it was clear he wanted to learn more about how to do so better. For example, in less than 24 hours, and by 8 a.m. the day of class, he has provided feedback to students about their papers turned in the day before. Then, during class, he has come up with an elaborate scheme for turning class discussion over to the students based on his comments on their papers. But then, this is a faculty member with an historical perspective—"I am now here almost 25 years . . . and so many things like (interaction) are now a big deal, . . . (but) I'm saying this is old news!"

The second consistent theme to emerge was the faculty's increased knowledge about the use, and limitations, of technology for distance education. All of the faculty, either by their own acknowledge or through interpretation of the data, developed new skills in the design and use of various technologies for distance education including web pages, chat rooms, and email. Faculty B also learned how to use and taught via PictureTel from a desktop video unit this past semester. But each of faculty also expressed reservations about the limitations of the technology. Faculty D said it most succinctly, "The need to keep contact with your students at a distance is a lot harder than in the classroom. Faculty B said it most passionately: "I'm missing the spontaneity of the classroom!"

The final theme that is important to document is that of the positive attitude toward working with instructional design teams that faculty developed during the course of the project. Although they did identify some initial problems with slow starts and miscommunications, by the end-of-year interviews they were all saying things like:

"I have a design team now who can help me with some of the extra work and can encourage me and say, 'That's the much better way to do it.' . . . The team was very supportive in my moving into arenas that I always had (wanted to but) had not known so much about." (Faculty A)

"The team was outstanding. I found them frankly very good (at what they do). . . . I don't think as an individual I could have done this as well or done it (at all). . . . These folks have been great!" (Faculty B)

"My attitude is pretty favorable. . . . I think I've benefited from seeing . . . sort of different perspectives." (Faculty D)

"I think that a great advantage . . . of the team approach is that we all do such different things. We come from such different backgrounds, and we all work in different facets . . . of (the) project so talking to other people who don't think the same way I do, who don't have the same background and preparation that I do, make me think about something that I didn't think about before. And that's . . . really positive!" (Faculty C)

My observations of year-end team meetings confirmed what the faculty themselves had said about their teams. The purpose of the meetings was to plan for exhibition of their projects at a Faculty Exposition. At each meeting I observed amiable relationships among team members and a sense of pride in what they had accomplished. In one case, even when there had been a miscommunication about who was to have followed up on the design of an evaluation instrument, both people involved were able to laugh with one another about the mishap.

Finally, I want to present the overarching pattern or emic construct that emerges from this paper. The main purpose was to research the *process* of change in faculty's knowledge, skills and attitudes. In each interview and observation of a particular faculty member one can point to elements of change in their understanding of distance education. But understanding the overall process of change requires linking information from interview to interview, and interview to observations and documents through an intuitive process. As I sat reading through transcripts for a third time, I had one of Adler and Adler's (1994) "click" experiences. I realized that the process of change is a continuum of experiences that leads to a final shift in paradigm in one's understanding of distance education.

Wolcott (1993) noted in her study of distance education faculty that they showed little understanding of the median's potential to impact course design. Among the four faculty I studied, two seemed to be on the verge of making the paradigm shift. Faculty B, for example, said "We need to explore new educational paradigms, and the environment for these kinds of projects is much more positive than even a few years ago." But only one faculty has actually made the transition, and that was Faculty A. She called it moving from foundational teaching to "just in time" learning. Her understanding of the medium in which she was teaching is seen in the following statement:

"Applying my particular philosophy of teaching requires a significantly different type of teaching in distance ed than in resident instruction. In resident instruction situations I have available to me techniques that work well in the classroom but will not in any sense of the word translate with high quality into the distance mode. So I had to attack my ingenuity, my creativity to not just adapt those things to a new environment but to create new things.

CONCLUSION

This paper presents the results of a pilot study on the process of change in four faculty's knowledge, attitudes and skills about distance education as a result of their participation in the *Innovations in Distance Education* project. Analysis of their experiences has resulted in increased understanding of their learning process and provides insight into the change process itself. However, the research is a "work in progress." First, based on coding of the data collected in the pilot study, there are additional emergent themes to be explored. They include the impact of distance teaching on the faculty's classroom teaching and their recognition of the need for a variety of support services for students. Second, I would like to do some additional follow-up interviews with the faculty to explore the expectant themes from the literature that did *not* appear in their conversation. Based on the literature review, I had expected faculty to talk about barriers to being successful, administrative concerns, or the need for additional training when, at the end of each interview, I asked if there was any message they would like to share with the "powers that be." That did not happen in any of the interviews I have conducted to date. These themes will be explored in the final research conducted as part of my doctoral dissertation.

REFERENCES

Adler, P. A., & Adler, P. (1994). Observational techniques. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 377-392). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Beaudoin, M. (1990). The instructor's changing role in distance education. *The American Journal of Distance Education, 4*(2), 21-29.

Callas, D. (1982). Rewards and classroom innovations. *Community College Review, 10*(2), 13-82.

Dillon, C. L. & Walsh, S. M. (1992). Faculty: The neglected resource in distance education. *The American Journal of Distance Education, 6*(3), 5-21.

Gunawardena, C. N. (1990). Integrating telecommunication systems to reach distance learners. *The American Journal of Distance Education, 4*(3), 38-46.

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1982). *Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources* (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Mezirow, J. (1981). A critical theory of adult learning and education. *Adult Education, 32*, 3-24.

Mezirow, J. (1994). Understanding transformation theory. *Adult Education Quarterly, 44*, 222-232.

Olcott, D. J., & Wright, S. J. (1995). An institutional support framework for increasing faculty participation in postsecondary distance education. *The American Journal of Distance Education, 9*(3), 5-17.

Rogers, E. (1971). *Communication of innovations*. New York: The Free Press.

Rogers, E. (1995). *Diffusion of innovations* (3rd ed.). New York: The Free Press.

Tulloch, J. (1996). Seven principles for good practice in distance learning. In *Proceedings of the Annual International Conference of the National Community College Chair Academy* (pp.14-17). Phoenix, AZ: National Community College Academy.

Wolcott, L. L. (1993). Faculty planning for distance teaching. *The American Journal of Distance Education, 7*(1), 26-36.

Wolcott, L. L. (1995). Faculty incentives and rewards for distance teaching. In B. S. Duning & V. V. Pittman (Eds.), *Discussion Papers from the Third Invitational Research Conference in Distance Education* (pp. 500-514). University Park, PA: The Pennsylvania State University.

Dehra W. Shafer, Doctoral Student, P.O. Box 1278, State College PA 16804

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF ADULT LEARNING THEORIES: WHAT DO WE REALLY KNOW ABOUT ADULT LEARNING?

Namin Shin
Fred M. Schied

ABSTRACT

This study reflects on the assumptions adult learning theories have made regarding adult learners and adult learning. Two sets of assumptions emerged through the review of andragogy, self-directed learning, and transformation learning: autonomous learners and self-directed learning, and practical learners and problem-solving learning. These assumptions reflect mainstream American values such as individualism and pragmatism, but the meaning of self-direction is vague and the assumption of practicality tends to disregard other significant reasons for adult learning. To overcome the deficiencies found in contemporary adult learning theories, this paper calls for a new direction for the inquiry of adult learning.

INTRODUCTION

Learning has been a well-established research area as is seen in psychology, but a considerable volume of learning theories is mainly interested in how animals or children learn something. Gerontology, which deals with subjects on the other extreme end of life span, expands our understanding of various aspects of old adults. It is adult learning theories that are supposed to fill the gap between these two areas, explaining how *adults* learn. One of the principal rationales for the study of adult learning is that if adult educators become knowledgeable about the way adults learn, then the practice of adult education will better serve adults when they go about learning. Due to this rationale, discussions of adult learning have held a central position in the scholarly works in the field. As the body of knowledge on adult learning increases, it becomes important to reflect on what research we have conducted with what questions.

This paper reflects on two assumptions that adult learning theories make about adult learning and adult learners. For this purpose, we critically examine theories of andragogy, self-directed learning, and transformation learning because they are predominant learning theories in the field. By critical we mean the process by which one examines the underlying assumptions the theories have made. By analysis we mean that theories can be interpreted in such a way to reveal what values are advocated and what values are ignored. Through this critical analysis, we endeavor to reveal the points that are overlooked by the taken-for-granted assumptions adult learning theories are based on. In addition, we not only explore how the assumptions are manifested in adult learning theories, but also investigate the philosophical and academic background that may have contributed to formulating the assumptions in an effort to search for new directions for the inquiry of adult learning.

ASSUMPTION ONE: AUTONOMOUS LEARNERS AND SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING

The first assumption that researchers in the field are taking is the belief in adults' autonomy or self-directedness. Knowles's (1980) andragogical assumptions start with the affirmation of adults' tendency toward self-directedness: "Adults both desire and enact a tendency toward self-directedness as they mature, though they may be dependent in certain situations" (p. 43). It is from

---

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

this assumption that advocates of self-directed learning draw their legitimacy when they urge that self-direction be incorporated into organized learning (Caffarella, 1993). Thus, the belief in autonomous learners and the desirability of self-directed learning is more than a covert assumption in the camp of self-directed learning theory, as is evident in the title. In Mezirow's (1990) transformation learning, the self and its ability to rationalize are also emphasized. In order for adults to transform their old and dysfunctional perspectives into a more superior one, adults must be capable of "thinking abstractly, becoming critically reflective, or making reflective judgements" (p. 359). Thus, learning theories in the field share, directly or indirectly, the view that adults are "rational, autonomous, and responsible beings" who can direct their learning tasks.

REFLECTION

Although many adult educators believe that adult learners are self-directed, the concept of self-direction remains ambiguous. Candy's (1991) comprehensive review of self-directed learning reveals several usages of the concept: self-direction as a personal attribute (personal autonomy); self-direction as the willingness and capacity to conduct one's own education (self-management); self-direction as a mode of organizing instruction in formal settings (learner-control); and self-direction as the individual, non-institutional pursuit of learning opportunities in the "natural societal setting" (autodidaxy) (p. 23). Likewise, Caffarella (1993) believes that research in self-directed learning provided us with insights into "the process of learning," "salient learning characteristics of adult learners," and "learner initiative and control in formal settings" (pp. 27-31).

The multi-faceted definition of self-direction not only leads us to question what the relationships among the facets are, but also requires a clarification of what each facet means. We follow Caffarella's (1993) classification in examining the problems related to each facet of self-direction.

First, when the self-direction is said to refer to the process of adult learning, it is hard to figure out what the process means specifically. Advocates of self-directed learning characterize self-directed learners as those who get involved in planning one's learning tasks, mobilizing resources needed, carrying out and evaluating those learning experiences (Brookfield, 1986). Then, one may question whether or not the planning, designing, implementing and evaluating could be considered as a learning process. The discussion of cognitive or any kind of internal change is missing from the explanation of learning process when it is described as a series of actions taken for learning. Brookfield sees the ambiguity when he says that those activities are better called a process of self-education rather than that of self-directed learning. When self-directed learning theory fails to elaborate on internal changes learners experience by way of learning, its ground is shaky as a learning theory. In fact, the field seems to lack a consensus on what learning process means.

Second, when the self-direction is said to refer to the learner characteristic aspect, it is unclear whether the construct explains the attribute of adults in general or that of adults engaged in learning in particular. It is still vague whether the autonomy is a nature of matured adults or somebody's projection of an ideal image of adults. Rather, Pratt's (1988) argument that self-direction is a situational variable that changes depending upon multiple variables on the part of both learners and teachers, sounds more realistic. In other words, he means that not all adults are always self-directed in every learning situation. Sometimes they may need support and direction from teachers, and other times they may not. If this is closer to the description of learning taking place in everyday lives, what is it that the theory tells us about learner characteristics?

Third, when self-direction is said to refer to the aspect of learner control in formal learning settings, it is unclear why only the learner control is assumed to be legitimate in a teaching-learning transaction. This does not mean that it is unimportant for learners to have an opportunity to exert their power over their learning. What I am seeking for is a rationale to support the assumption of learner control because "who should take control to what extent" is a complicated issue involved in power relationships and ethics (Hart, 1990). Does the self-direction as a learner control imply that in a formal learning setting it is desirable to maximize learner's control and minimize teacher's control as much as possible?

In a remark on the role of adult educators, Mezirow (1990) implies that anyone concerned with teaching has their own purposes, agenda, and, presumably, intent to direct learners in a certain way.

> We [adult educators] know that we must respond to initial learner interests and self-defined needs, but we do so *with the intent to move the learners* to an awareness of the reasons for these needs and how the learners' meaning perspectives may have limited the way they customarily perceive, think, feel, and act in defining and attempting to satisfy their needs. (pp. 357-358, emphasis added)

If we appreciate that any educator, teacher, or facilitator, whatever they are called, has a certain intent, or power over those who learn, then what it is that the third aspect of self-directed learning (i.e., learner control in an organized setting of learning) tells us? The advocates of self-directed learning seem to avert this kind of political question by bringing a new interpretation, that is, self-direction should be viewed as an ultimate goal of adult learning, rather than as a matter of control. In this way, the construct of self-direction circle around multiple interpretations pointing out different dimensions whenever the notion is challenged, which could make any of the aspect difficult to be clarified.

ASSUMPTION TWO: PRACTICAL LEARNERS AND PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING

The second assumption which adult learning theories are based on is that adults are practical learners interested in applying what they acquire from learning to its use. Three of the four assumptions of Knowles' (1980) andragogy are associated with the concepts such as problem-solving, life application, and performance-centered orientation. In the camp of self-directed learning, a "self-defined" need has held a cardinal position in directing learning activities. In transformation learning theory, problematic situations that are incompatible with individuals' extant framework can play a role in leading adults to a perspective transformation. Therefore, if we are faithful to the problems' compatibility with learning, we might accept that those who go through their lives without coming across critical incidents may not get involved in transformation learning (Mezirow, 1994).

REFLECTION

The second premise of practicality falls into the answer to "why" kind of question, that is, the purpose for which adults get involved in learning tasks. Unlike the taken-for-granted assumption, however, empirical studies demonstrate that practicality is just one of various reasons that adults continue to learn after schooling. With regard to the purpose for which adults volunteer to learn, Houle (1963) suggested three types of learner groups: those who have clear-cut objectives (goal-oriented), those interested in activities which had no connection with the content (activity-oriented), and those who seek knowledge for its own sake (learning-oriented). In this case, the assumption of practicality can only apply to the goal-oriented learners.

Indeed, it is difficult to generalize the purposes of adult learning because research results vary from study to study. Therefore, to consider only applicability and competency-based development as the main purpose of adult learning may disregard a considerable portion of learning undertaken by adults. Brookfield (1986) challenges the assumption by citing research studies (Brookfield, 1980; Danis & Trembly, as cited in Brookfield, 1986; Thiel, as cited in Brookfield, 1986) indicating that "adults' most joyful and personally meaningful learning is undertaken with no specific goal in mind." Interestingly, however, Cross (1981) concludes that most adults give practical, pragmatic reasons for learning although motivations differ for different groups of learners. From the controversy over the reasons adults continue to learn in their lifetime, we may synthesize that learning motivation is diverse and even multi-faceted, but in terms of frequency practicality takes priority.

Assuming that adults get involved in learning mainly for practical reasons is not only unsuitable because it fails to take into account other motivation factors but also problematic because it could significantly restrict the scope of adult learning. If we would have acknowledged that adults are to learn "to solve problems," then there should have been a volume of discussion about the substance of the problems. Unfortunately, however, the discussion of the problem seems not to go beyond the description of developmental tasks or life events adults may or may not go through in their lifetime (for example, Tennant & Pogson, 1995). Here comes another missing point the field needs to address, that is, the nature of problems significant to adults and the relation of the problems with learning. Also, it should be reminded that if the field is oriented toward instrumental purposes of learning, it could easily overlook other reasons for adult learning as well as simplify the characteristics of adult learners.

DISCUSSION

Given the problems with the assumptions, now it may be appropriate to delve into the factors that have contributed to forming the assumptions. Exploring the background to the theories will give us implications for new directions that the inquiry of adult learning may take.

First of all, it is notable that the two assumptions we discussed so far exactly correspond to the mainstream American values. Podeschi (1986) claims that the American mainstream values, that is, progress, individualism, and pragmatism, are so dominant in contemporary adult education field that liberal and radical adult education is difficult to develop. This paper strongly agrees with his assertion. For example, self-direction, the manifestation of individualism, is permeated in all aspects of adult learning, that is, as an ultimate goal, as a method of teaching, as an attribute of adult learners, etc. According to Podeschi (1986), what makes the assumption of self-direction so appealing is that it provides a pleasant slogan to the field. Likewise, practicality is a catch phrase for the field to capitalize on in that "good knowledge" is the "knowledge to be applied" and an individual is defined "by activity and achievement" (p. 5).

Another influence may be found in the academic orientation of the field that puts primary interest in devising teaching strategy rather than in understanding of the phenomenon of adult learning. To Knowles (1984), "a theory is a comprehensive, coherent, and internally consistent system of ideas about a set of phenomena" (p. 5). Mezirow (1996) makes it clear that his theory "seeks to develop a universal, abstract, idealized model of adult learning" (p. 158). Both comments reveal that contemporary adult learning theorists are interested in contemplating an ideal model of adult learning rather than concerned with how adults learn in the real world. An urgent need to inform the field of how to teach adults, or facilitate them in a euphemistic sense as Baptiste (1999) said, may have caused this tendency. But the need may be difficult to be met unless learning theories are grounded in field research.

In exploring the role of adult learning theories, Tight (1996) provides us with a good "food for thought." After examining various viewpoints that define learning, Tight indicates three major deficiencies that most learning theories hold: 1) the lack of consensus to guide the most effective way or ways of encouraging worthwhile learning; 2) the individual learner approach, which ignores the fact that all learning takes place within a social context; and 3) theorizing moves us away from the subject of theorizing, that is, learners and how they learn. Among these, the second point gives us a clue to approaching the inquiry of adult learning with a new framework. When learning is theorized with a consideration of social context where learning takes place, e.g., workplace, community, adult literacy class, and so on, the picture of adult learning will be more concrete as well as informative.

In order to better inform the field of how adults learn, it seems to be necessary to come up with new directions for research studies of adult learning. After reviewing history and assumptions of andragogy, Davenport (1993) suggests researchers put the andragogical assumptions in a hypothesis testing so that only the survived one can remain in the theory of andragogy. Recently, Baptiste (1999) addresses the need for new direction by suggesting that the field turn its attention to providing rich descriptions of adults' learning process going beyond the level of conceptual distinctions. The absence of knowledge on what goes on "in the heads" of individual learners is already pointed out by educational psychologists who declare a new area of research called "adult educational psychology" (Smith & Pourchot, 1998, p. 5). Particularly, the approach from educational psychology emphasizes the solidity of their research studies as they are "rooted in theory and supported by empirical studies" (p. 261). All these comments bring a lesson to researchers interested in adult learning when it comes to research methodology.

CONCLUSION

This study raises questions about the assumptions that are taken for granted regarding adult learning and learners, and problematizes the legitimacy adult learning theories claim. The assumptions embedded within the theories of andragogy, self-directed learning, and transformational learning reflect humanistic and pragmatic philosophy.

Humanism is respectful of individual freedom, self-reliance, and self-direction; but humanism lacks in its link with social context where its meaning is shaped and changes. In addition, this paper argues that when the value of pragmatism is dominant in adult education practice, the scope of learning is limited to the development of problem-solving competency and skills. The instrumental notion of learning is against the meaning of lifelong learning which values "everyday learning" happening always somewhere (Larsson, 1997). Despite the weaknesses, these two philosophies are interwoven frequently in practice because they appeal to mainstream American values of progress, individualism, and practicality. One of the reasons why the theories are based on individualism, humanism, and pragmatism is, we speculate, that the theorists in the field have been primarily interested in projecting their thoughts on how adults ought to learn and what kind of learners adults should be.

In conclusion, adult learning does not seem to stand as an inquiry independent from teaching theories. In other words, the motivation to come up with how to teach adults is presupposed in the study of adult learning, which ironically hinders a sound understanding of what goes on with learners and learning. Between the implicit philosophical influence and a demand of rigorous methodology, adult learning theories face a challenge in advancing themselves and in moving towards a new direction.

REFERENCES

Baptiste, I. (1999, October). Adult learning is neither? Paper presented at the 48th Annual Conference of the American Association of Adult and Continuing Education, San Antonio, TX

Brookfield, S. D. (1980). *Independent adult learning*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Leicester, UK.

Brookfield, S. D. (1986). *Understanding and facilitating adult learning: A comprehensive analysis of principles and effective practices*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Caffarella, R. S. (1993). Self-directed learning. In S. B. Merriam, *an update on adult learning theory* (pp. 25-35). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Candy, P. C. (1991). *Self-direction for lifelong learning*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Cross, K. P. (1981). *Adults as learners*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Davenport, J. (1993). Is there any way out of the andragogy morass? In R. Edwards, A. &M. Thorpe (Eds.), *Culture and processes of adult learning* (pp. 109-117). New York: Routledge.

Hart, M. (1990). Critical theory and beyond: Further perspectives on emancipatory education. *Adult Education Quarterly, 40*, 125-138.

Houle, C. O. (1963). *The inquiring mind*. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press.

Knowles, M. (1980). *The modern practice of adult education: From pedagogy to andragogy*. New York: Cambridge Books.

Knowles, M. (1984). *The adult learner: A neglected species*. Houston: Gulf.

Larsson, S. (1997). The meaning of life-long learning. In S. Walters (Ed.), *Globalization, adult education & training: Impacts & issues* (pp. 250-261). New York: ZED Books.

Mezirow, J. (1990). Conclusion: Toward transformative learning and emancipatory education. In J. Mezirow & Associates, *Fostering critical reflection in adulthood: A guide to transformative and emancipatory learning* (pp. 354-376). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mezirow, J. (1994). Understanding transformation theory. *Adult Education Quarterly, 44*, 222-232.

Mezirow, J. (1996). Contemporary paradigms of learning. *Adult Education Quarterly, 46*, 158-173.

Podeschi, R. L. (1986). Philosophies, practices, and American values. *Lifelong Learning*, 9(4), 27-28.

Pratt, D. (1988). Andragogy as a relational construct. *Adult Education Quarterly, 38*, 160-181.

Smith, M. C., & Pourchot, T. (1998). *Adult learning and development: Perspectives from educational psychology*. Mahwah,NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Tennant, M., & Pogson, P. (1995). *Learning and change in the adult years*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Tight, M. (1996). *Key concepts in adult education and training*. New York: Routledge.

Namin Shin, Doctoral Candidate, Adult Education Program, The Pennsylvania State University, 314 Keller Bldg., University Park, PA 16802. nxs187@psu.edu

Fred M. Schied, Associate Professor, Adult Education Program, The Pennsylvania State University, 314 Keller Bldg., University Park, PA 16802. fms3@psu.edu

We would like to thank Juliet A. Smith and Pyeong-gook Kim for their comments on this paper.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State University, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

FACTORS ENHANCING PARTICIPATION IN CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORKERS IN RURAL LOCATIONS

Cynthia Shuman
W. F. Spikes

ABSTRACT

Beginning in the 1970's, most of the states in the U.S. adopted laws requiring licensed social workers to complete a specified number of continuing education hours as part of their licensure renewal procedure. Kansas enacted this type of legislation 25 years ago, which today requires the 5000 social work practitioners in the state to participate in continuing professional education. Approximately one-third of these 5000 professionals practice in non-metropolitan or rural communities. With this in mind this research examined the factors which enhanced the participation of rural practitioners in continuing professional education activities and determined how these factors were ranked in level of importance.

A questionnaire based on Miller's work (1994) and literature in the field was developed and distributed to approximately one-third of the 1469 licensed social workers practicing in non-metropolitan communities in Kansas. Results indicated that three factors, relevance to practice, location of program, and registration fees appear to have a high level of influence when rural social workers choose a continual professional education program in which to participate. A further examination of demographic characteristics (age, gender, level of licensure and membership status in a professional organization) showed significant differences among respondents.

INTRODUCTION

Prior to the 1970's, most of the emphasis in social work education was placed in long-term, degree granting programs. The majority of State and Federal educational resources went to support Baccalaureate and Master of Social Work programs. Continuing education after graduation was left up to the discretion of the individual social worker (Davenport and Davenport, 1985). However, with the development of the social welfare movement in the late 60's and early 70's, there became a critical need to provide practicing social workers with additional education and training. Funding from a variety of sources, such as the National Institute of Mental Health, Child Welfare training grants and Title XX Social Services training was used to develop continuing education opportunities. At this same time, the National Association of Social Workers began lobbying for social work licensure laws. By requiring professional licensure, it was hoped that a high degree of competency and commitment could be maintained by the practitioner (Lauffer, 1977). As states drafted legislation including continuing professional education requirements, it was necessary for social workers to gain access to quality programs on a regular basis.

While a review of the literature indicated that there has been extensive research conducted in the area of participation in adult and continuing education, few studies have specifically focused on participation patterns in non-metropolitan areas. As the majority of Kansas counties fall into the non-metropolitan classification, many social workers practice in small, and sometimes isolated, communities. This study examined the participation factors of those practitioners. As all licensed social workers, regardless of geographic location, are required to fulfill the same number of continuing education hours, rural participants may face additional challenges and/or influences that their urban counterparts do not experience.

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

The format for the questionnaire used in this survey to determine the importance of factors enhancing participation in continuing professional education was based in part on studies by Miller (1994) and Farrell (1989). The instrument consisted of five sections. The first part requested demographic information about the respondent, including age, gender, ethnicity, highest level of education completed, level of social work licensure, and membership status in the national professional organization NASW.

For the remainder of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to rank the importance of certain factors as they relate to participation in four categories of continuing social work education. For the purpose of this study, the following areas of continuing professional social worker education were identified from the literature (Schneider and Sharon, 1982; Wodarski, 1986): Professional Skills, Professional Knowledge, Professional Ethics and Managerial Skills. Within each category, respondents were asked to use a Likert-type scale to rank the importance of the following factors: registration fees, employer assistance with registration fees, length of program, schedule of program, schedule at work, location of program, sponsor/presenter, number of continuing education units offered, method of instruction, relevance to practice needs, recommendation from peers, and recommendation from employer. The scale ranged from 1 = not important to 4 = very important. A response of 0 indicated not applicable.

A professional panel of licensed social workers outside of the sample population was consulted to establish validity of the instrument. Additionally, a pilot study was conducted to test the reliability of the instrument and to further check content validity.

METHODOLOGY

Approximately one-third (500) of the 1469 rural social workers licensed in 1998 with the Kansas Behavioral Sciences Regulatory Board were selected in a random sample to receive the questionnaire by mail. 25 of the questionnaires were returned as undeliverable. Of the remaining 475, 218 usable surveys were returned for a return rate of 45.89% for the study.

DATA ANALYSIS

Demographic data collected from the respondents were analyzed for frequencies using SPSS. Reports of central tendencies (mean, standard deviation) for the twelve factors in each category were also created with SPSS. Due to the occurrence of unbalanced (missing) data, however, a General Linear Model (GLM) procedure in SAS was used to test the effect of a variable and its combined effect with a treatment. Each of the four response categories was analyzed individually to test for influence from the factors listed with first order interactions. The results obtained through General Linear Model were determined to be statistically significant at α (alpha) $\leq .05$.

RESULTS

The demographic profile of the respondents is similar to those found in national statistics for the field (Bureau of Labor, 1998). The majority of respondents were female (80%), between the ages of 25 and 50 (76%), holding a Bachelor of Social Work degree (60%). The ethnicity of the respondents was predominantly Caucasian (94.5%). Only one quarter of the respondents (25.2%) reported that they were members of the national professional organization, National Association of Social Workers.

For continuing education programs concerning professional skills (i.e., interviewing techniques), it was found that relevance to practice had the highest mean score (3.66) among those listed, indicating a high level of importance for the practitioner. Location of program also had a high mean score (3.65). A third factor, registration fees, had the next highest mean score (3.44).

For continuing education programs concerning professional knowledge (regarding current regulations or guidelines) found the same three factors listed above (relevance to practice, location of program, registration fees) to have the highest mean scores in this category (3.62, 3.55, and 3.43, respectively).

Continuing education programs concerning professional ethics (i.e. professionalism, confidentiality) again found location of program (3.60), relevance to practice (3.47) and registration fees (3.42) to be ranked the highest among the factors listed.

In the category of managerial skills (i.e., time or stress management, delegation, etc.), the study found location of program (3.45), registration fees (3.34) and relevance to practice (3.33) to have the highest mean scores. It is interesting to note that while the same three factors were identified across all four categories, the rankings differed.

For the final section of analysis, the responses for each category of continuing education programs were analyzed using the General Linear Model procedure to determine statistical significance relating to demographic characteristics (age, gender, level of licensure, and membership in the professional organization).

Regarding programs concerning professional skills, gender was found to have a statistically significant influence on the responses given. Females tended to rank individual factors higher (more important) than did male respondents. The interaction between age and level of licensure was also found significant. Respondents over the age of 61 who are licensed at the Bachelor of Social Work or Master of Social Work level tended to rank the individual factors higher than did other age groups licensed at those same levels.

For programs concerning professional knowledge, the interaction between age and gender was found to have a statistically significant influence on responses given. Of the respondents ages 41-50 females tended to rank the individual factors higher than did males in that same category.

For programs concerning professional ethics, the interaction of gender and membership status in a professional organization was found to have a statistically significant influence on responses given. For respondents that are members of National Association of Social Workers, females tended to rank the individual factors higher in this category than did males. The study also found that males who are not members of National Association of Social Workers tended to rank the individual factors higher than did males who are members.

In the final category, programs concerning managerial skills, age, gender, and level of licensure were found to have statistically significant influence on the responses given. Females tended to rank the individual factors slightly higher than did males in this category. The interactions between age and level of licensure and between age and membership in a professional organization were also found statistically significant. Respondents ages 25-40 and those 41-50 who are licensed at the Masters level tended to rank the factors higher than those that are licensed at the Bachelor of Social Work level or a Licensed Clinical Social Worker in the same age categories. Respondents who are members of the National Association of Social Workers ages 41-50 tended to rank factors higher in this category than those who are not members. Respondents who are members ages 51-60 were also found to rank the factors higher than did those who are not members.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

There are several implications for continuing professional social work education that can be drawn from this research. Findings in this study show the need for the continued provision of programs that are relevant to current social work practice. Respondents indicated that in selecting a program concerning professional skills or knowledge, the ability to apply the information provided to their practice was the most important element that influenced their participation as compared to other factors. Providers need to be aware of the issues facing social work practitioners in non-metropolitan areas and be able to respond to their needs in a suitable and timely manner.

The study also indicated that the location of the continuing education program is very important to social work practitioners in non-metropolitan areas. Smaller communities may have a difficult time providing needed programs due to lack of resources or insufficient numbers for participation. Social workers may have to travel a considerable distance in order to participate in a program. In order to get the most out of a continuing education program, social workers must have reasonable access to it.

The cost of programs was reported as being a factor in participation from the respondents. As part of the issue of access, social workers must have affordable programs available to them. It may be cost prohibitive for providers to supply programs in rural locations. Some of these issues may be addressed by the development of communication technology, but there is still the problem of initial hardware and wiring costs.

Looking at professional skills programs, this study found that females ranked the factors higher than did the male practitioners. While females represent the larger part of the field (about 75%), it is important that continuing education programs provide equally relevant and accessible programs to male practitioners.

Regarding age and level of licensure, the research found that practitioners over the age of 61 licensed at the Bachelor's level ranked the factors higher than others licensed at the same level. One purpose of continuing education programs is to keep social workers current on information that they may not use on a day-to-day basis in their practice and keep them informed of new developments. For those that have been in practice for several years, it is important to continually increase one's knowledge base.

For programs concerning professional knowledge, the study found the females ages 41-50 ranked the factors higher than did their male counterparts. As stated above, it is important that programs provide equally relevant and accessible programs to both male and female practitioners.

This research found that for programs concerning professional ethics females who are members of the National Association of Social Workers ranked the factors higher than did males who are members. Once again, it is important that the needs of all practitioners are addressed by continuing education providers. Additionally, the study found a difference in response between males that are members of NASW and males that are not members. As NASW is concerned with ethical issues and has in fact established the code of ethics for social work professionals, it may be that membership provides practitioners additional opportunities to meet continuing education requirements.

In the final category, this research found practitioners licensed at the Master's level ranked the factors higher than did those at other levels. While most entry level positions require a Bachelor of Social Work degree, a Master of Social Work is usually required for advancement. Supervisory, or managerial, positions are typically filled by practitioners holding a MSW (or other higher degree). In addition to relevant social work skills, it is important for these practitioners to participate in programs that help them fulfill the duties of their positions.

It was also found that member of NASW ages 41-60 ranked the factors in this category higher than did other members. Membership in a professional organization allows for networking and development of leadership skills. Practitioners in supervisory positions may find it beneficial to maintain membership in NASW in order to take advantage of these activities.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations for research and practice were offered.

1. Current trends in social work practice must be tracked and addressed. Twenty years ago, social work practitioners in rural communities in Kansas had a very homogeneous population that served as their client base. With the increase of immigrant workers into these communities, social workers are faced with a much more diverse clientele today. As new

issues arise for social workers, continuing education providers must be able to supply timely, relevant information that meets the needs of the social workers and the community at large.

2. Access to continuing education programs needs to be studied. As telecommunication technology continues to evolve, opportunities for "distance education" will increase. However, small communities may not have the resources necessary to get on line. Further research is needed in the use and effectiveness of this type of training; is it a viable option for the rural social worker?

3. As gender tended to be a significant characteristic in a variety of categories, there is a need to study whether it is gender of the social workers, or the positions they hold, which caused the females to respond differently from their male counterparts.

4. It was assumed for this study that responses of social workers in non-metropolitan areas would differ from responses of social workers in metropolitan areas. Further research could be conducted on practitioners in metropolitan areas in order to develop a real comparison.

CONCLUSION

Social work is a challenging profession. Practitioners must have a variety of tools, a combination of education and experience, to effectively serve their clients. Continuing education programs can provide information needed in the course of day-to-day practice. To be successful, for both the provider and the participant, continuing professional social work education needs to be available, accessible, and relevant to practitioners in all locations, metropolitan and non-metropolitan.

REFERENCES

Bureau of Labor Statistics. (1998). *1998-99 occupational outlook handbook*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Cervero, R. (1988). *Effective continuing education for professionals*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Dattalo, P. (1994). Perceived continuing education needs of licensed clinical social workers. *Journal of Social Work Education, 30*(2), 217-227.

Davenport, J., & Davenport, J. (1985). Continuing social work education: The development of a literature base. *Journal of Adult Education, 14*(1), 9-16.

Farrell, L. (1989). *Influences upon decision making of board of education members*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Fordham University, New York.

Knox, A. (1990). Influences on participation in continuing education. *Journal of Continuing Education in the Health Professions, 10*(3), 261-274.

Langsner, S. (1994). Deterrents to participation in continuing professional education: A survey of the National Therapeutic Recreational Society. *Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 28*(3), 147-162.

Laufer, Z., & Sharon, N. (1993). Continuing education programs, an image of the professions: The case of social work. *Higher Education, 26*, 267-274.

Lauffer, A. (1977). *The practice of continuing education in the human services*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Miller, M. (1994). *School board member perceptions of boardsmanship education, training, and development resources with regard to the performance of school board duties*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Kansas State University, Manhattan.

Schneider, R., & Sharon, N. (1982). Representation of social work agencies: New definition, special issues and practice model. *Administration in Social Work, 6*(1), 59-68.

Wodarski, J. (1986). *An introduction to social work education*. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.

Cynthia A. Shuman, Instructional Designer, SRS Training Project, 369 Bluemont Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506. java@ksu.edu.

W. Franklin Spikes, Professor, Foundations and Adult Education, 363 Bluemont Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506. wfs3@ksu.edu.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

THE RELEVANCE OF LINDEMAN'S (1926) *THE MEANING OF ADULT EDUCATION* TO ADULT EDUCATORS IN THE 21^{ST} CENTURY

Irwin H. Siegel

ABSTRACT

Eduard Lindeman's (1926/1989) *The Meaning of Adult Education* has been widely cited as one of the field's most important books. In 1983, Stephen Brookfield stated that the book "constitutes the single work in American adult education which can justly lay claim to the status of a visionary charter for the field." Yet the field of adult education has undergone some profound changes since Brookfield's comment sixteen years ago. Given these changes, is Lindeman still relevant? This paper seeks to critically analyze Lindeman's "vision" for adult education, discusses its relevancy for adult education today, and speculates on its applicability in the 21^{st} Century.

"Although written more than 60 years ago, . . . *The Meaning of Adult Education* continues to hold celebrated status in most North American graduate programs of adult education. Today, Lindeman is viewed by countless adult educators as the 'patron saint of adult education'" (Sisco, 1990, p. 116). If that eye-popping praise for the only book on adult education ever written by Eduard Lindeman is not impressive enough, especially for a work of less than 200 pages, try this one: *The Meaning of Adult Education* (Lindeman, 1926/1989) is "the single work in American adult education which can justly lay claim to the status of a visionary charter for the field...it is the one tract in the field to which the term 'classic' can correctly be applied" (Brookfield, 1983, p. 37). What is this book, who was its author, why is it considered so significant, and what was its contribution to American adult education? These are broad questions to which significant Lindeman biographers such as Brookfield (1987a) and Stewart (1987) have dedicated hundreds of pages. The intention of this paper is not to discuss the *contribution* of *The Meaning of Adult Education* (Lindeman, 1926) to adult education, but rather the *relevance*, if any, of this work to American adult education at the end of the 20^{th} century.

It was in 1926, soon after accepting a teaching position at the New York School of Social Work (Columbia University) that Lindeman published *The Meaning of Adult Education* (Lindeman, 1926/1989). Although the next twenty-five years would find Lindeman authoring numerous pieces dealing with various aspects of adult education, "nowhere in his writings, after the early statement in *The Meaning of Adult Education*, did Lindeman undertake a sustained elaboration of his ideas on adult education as a field of theory and practice" (Brookfield, 1987b, p. 121). Stewart (1987) cautions that the book itself "was written when Lindeman's thinking about adult education was in its incipient stages" (p. xiv). In fact, Lindeman admits in the "Foreword" to *The Meaning of Adult Education* that "the material which composes this essay has been brewing for years but it has been formulated within a short space of time" (Lindeman, 1926/1989, pp. xlii-xliii). His biographer defines "short": "He turned [the book] out in a few short weeks of effort; there was no rewriting" (Stewart, 1987, p. xiv).

As a result, this "classic" or "visionary" treatise on adult education is less than a polished gem. Quite frankly, the organization of *The Meaning of Adult Education* (1926/1989) defies explanation. As for the writing:

> Certainly it was full of organizational and syntactic flaws. It covered far too many subjects. The progression of logic was sometimes unfathomable. Some of it was not fully understandable even on second or third reading...the blurred message of this little book. (Stewart, 1987, p. xiii)

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

The book itself "identifies central principles which are argued as endemic to adult education, but does not articulate a crisp and clear definition" (Brookfield, 1987b, p. 122). Although "Eduard Lindeman has emerged in the decades since the 1920's as one of the leading conceptual architects of the modern practice of adult education" (Stewart, 1987, p. 91), critics were, overall, less than impressed with the book, castigating it as "schematic and abstract . . . nothing more than a sketchy outline . . . contrives to be at once brief and wordy" (pp. 97-98).

So, how can this flawed work possible be considered a "classic" in adult education? Brookfield (1983) provides us with the criteria:

> First, it should have an enduring relevance in that it addresses perennial concerns using concepts and theories which have contemporary meaning and application. Secondly, it should induce a paradigm shift in the way in which the study of a field is conceptualised and undertaken. On both counts, Lindeman's work satisfies these criteria admirably. (p. 37)

What were the "concepts and theories" articulated in *The Meaning of Adult Education* (1926/ 1989) which result in its "status as a visionary charter for the field"? (Brookfield, 1983, p. 37). Researcher after researcher has turned to four principles summarized at the beginning of the book as representing the heart of Lindeman's vision for adult education. Stewart (1987) notes that these "assumptions about adult education that undergirded his work" are presented "with something less than crystal clarity" (p. 103). If we are to determine Lindeman's relevance today, we must understand the concepts he articulated which resulted in others hailing him as the field's "visionary" for over seventy years. The four "principles" (Brookfield, 1987b, p. 5) follow, first, as presented by Lindeman, then with some explanation. It is important to recognize that upon these principles Lindeman's "visionary" characteristic has largely been grounded.

1. *Lifelong education*. "The whole of life is learning, therefore education can have no endings. This new venture is called *adult education*–not because it is confined to adults but because adulthood, maturity, defines its limits" (Lindeman, 1926/1989, pp. 4-5).
2. *Non-vocational character*. "Education conceived as a process coterminous with life revolves around *non-vocational* ideals. . . . Adult education more accurately defined begins where vocational education leaves off. Its purpose is to put meaning into the whole of life" (Lindeman, 1926/1989, p. 5). This principle has been described as Lindeman's "defiant rejection of adult education having any involvement with vocational training" (Brookfield, 1987b, p. 124).
3. *Situational*. "The approach to adult education will be via the route of *situations*, not subjects" (Lindeman, 1926/1989, p. 6).
4. Experiential. "The resource of highest value in adult education is the *learner's experience*. . . . Experience is the adult learner's living textbook" (Lindeman, 1926/1989, p. 7).

It is important not to underestimate or devalue the contributions these "four principles argued as endemic to the field" (Brookfield, 1987a, p. 123) have been. They provided a framework for a fledgling discipline and have influenced later thought. The impact of *The Meaning of Adult Education* (1926/1989) is best described by the Ilsley (1982) Delphi study, wherein ten adult education professors were asked to nominate the ten most important books within the field. Despite having been out of print for a number of years, *The Meaning of Adult Education* (1926/1989) tied with Knowles' (1980) treatise for first place. At a conference presentation, Stewart (as cited in Brookfield, 1983) described it as "the best and most cogent synthesis of adult education as a living activity that has been written to date" (p. 97). (Note how his opinion of the book's "cogent" dimension changed four years later!). Not only Brookfield, who admitted that his own biography of Lindeman and that of Stewart (1987) both "suffer from an overly eulogistic tone . . . [a] tone of earnest advocacy . . . [a] desperate desire to prove to myself, my colleagues, and those looking at our field that we *do* have a history, that we *do* have some kind of intellectual plausibility . . . [therefore] limitations are not spelled out, criticisms avoided" (Brookfield, 1993, p. 123), but a respected luminary such as Stubblefield (1987a) could conclude: "A classic illuminates abiding issues in such a way that succeeding generations discover light and direction. Lindeman's *The*

Meaning of Adult Education is regarded as a classic in the field because adult educators have discovered such light and direction" (p. 115).

The Meaning of Adult Education (1926/1989) has definitely made a *contribution* to the field. But is the work *relevant* to adult education as it enters the 21st century? Does it still proclaim the "vision" for the field? Does it provide the "light and direction" needed for the next century?

If one limits discussion of the book to the sound byte aphorisms or the four principles (all presented within the first ten pages of the book), the answer, quite frankly, is no. We have already noted that the "cardinal principle" relative to adult education being non-vocational is no longer relevant, and may never have been. The concept of lifelong education, and the value of situational and experiential learning are all canonized within the field. One does not lead, however, by resting on his/her laurels. Are there *other* principles set forth within *The Meaning of Adult Education* (1926/1989), those which have not yet been transformed into aphorisms, sound bytes or made part of the canon, those that, perhaps, may have been somewhat overlooked by Lindeman's primary biographers, that can guide adult education into the next century?

The beauty of Lindeman's "organic conception" (Brookfield, 1987a, p. 123) of adult education is that, buried beneath the apparent disorganization of the chapters of *The Meaning of Adult Education* (1926/1989) lie five (5) somewhat "virgin" principles which can be considered Lindeman's vision for the 21st century and, perhaps, beyond. The remainder of this paper is dedicated to presenting and exploring the value of each of these principles, many of which have not benefited from a great deal of scholarly review, perhaps due to the fact that they are cited to buttress one of the four "cardinal principles" and, consequently, not viewed as independent, self-contained units of thought.

1. LINDEMAN'S FORMULA FOR MEANING-MAKING

Note how the following quotation from *The Meaning of Adult Education* (1926/1989) sounds a theme rampant within the past twenty years in the field:

> If we take for granted that human nature is varied, changing and fluid, we will know that life's meanings are conditioned by the individual...We have only one pragmatic guide: meaning must reside in the things for which people strive, the goals they set for themselves, their wants, needs, desires and wishes. (p. 8)

Lindeman's view on *how* individuals make meaning is interesting and appears to seldom be cited in discussions on his work. To Lindeman, experience and meaning, ultimately knowledge, are linked through intelligence: "Intelligence is not merely the capacity which enables us to profit by experience; it is the function of personality which gives experience its past, present and future meaning" (Lindeman, 1926/1989, p. 17). For once, Lindeman is relatively clear when he describes the operation of this formula, which can be depicted as:

$$\text{Experience} + \text{Intelligence} = \text{Meaning}$$

He instructs: "Knowledge . . . emerges from experience. Intelligence is the light which reveals educational opportunities in experience. Life is experiencing, and intelligent living is a way of making experience into an educational adventure. To be educated is not to be informed, but to find illumination in informed living" (p. 110). Further, "knowledge, like fish, either grows or dies. And if knowledge grows, it is because knowing was once a part of experiencing" (p. 113). Intelligence is what gives experience its meaning, and knowledge results from this meaning-making. Contrary to Brookfield's (1993) lament, experiences do not necessarily need "critical interpretation" (p. 123); rather, the interpretation occurs at the *front-end*, according to Lindeman, via intelligence, the catalyst between experience and meaning. This may not be the same as Kolb's (1984) "abstract conceptualization" and "reflective observation" components of experiential learning, and may be a subject for further research in the next century.

2. LINDEMAN'S FORAY INTO POSTMODERN THOUGHT

The Meaning of Adult Education (1926/1989) may also be relevant in the future for this remarkably prescient, yes, postmodern-sounding Lindeman insight:

> Man succeeds in accommodating himself and his purposes to the order of nature by means of adjustments *to* and *with*, not against natural processes...this power which utilizes natural forces has come to be also the most potent manipulator of our lives. Inhabitants of the modern world must somehow effect an adjustment between the knowledge of nature (science) and their thinking. We are all subject to this power; we should all also so far as possible understand its significance. The hiatus between a life dominated increasingly by science and a life rationalized in terms of unscientific or anti-scientific thought represents one of the most appalling deficiencies of our civilization...Adult education presumes, then, to serve as one of the means by which the mind may be kept fresh for the assimilation of that knowledge which is synonymous with power. (Lindeman, 1926/1989, pp. 24-25)

Lindeman's vision of adult education's contribution to the postmodern conversation is, as always, pragmatic: neither fight scientific "progress" nor allow that "progress" to manipulate you. Rather, work with "natural processes" to *take control* of the power effected through scientific discovery in order to better oneself through assimilation of that which one determines constitutes "knowledge." Assisting adult learners in developing a position somewhere between Neil Postman and uncritical acceptance of the virtues of all technology is indeed relevant as adult education moves into the next century! "Adjustments to the propelling forces in the modern world cannot be fruit-fully achieved until intellectual, moral and spiritual values emerge which are capable of giving direction and meaning to life" (Lindeman, 1926/1989, p. 127).

3. APPRECIATING DIVERSITY AND DIFFERENCE

Lindeman died in 1953, over a decade prior to the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Yet, even in 1926, it was evident that he understood the strength inherent in appreciating diversity and difference: "Difference is the base of personal integrity. Only the unintelligent fear what differs from themselves. We should, if we were bravely intelligent, beg individuals to give us their difference, not their sameness" (Lindeman, 1926/1989, p. 36). Later in the book, he adds, "Our hopes flow from the simple conviction that diversity is more likely to make life interesting than is conformity" (p. 89). Stewart (1987) includes "creative use of diversity" as one of Lindeman's "democratic disciplines" (p. 184). However, this aspect of Lindeman's thought has not been freely addressed by his biographers. Neither has it as yet been universally adopted by Americans; therefore, it is a relevant aspiration for adult education as we enter the next century.

4. SOCIAL ACTION, FREEDOM AND POWER

Brookfield (1993) provides the perspective in understanding this very important "vision" of Lindeman which is not included among the "four cardinal principles":

> The socialistic side of Lindeman's work, and the political impulse in the American field as a whole, has been either ignored or repressed by succeeding generations of adult educators. When he died, Lindeman was known to adult educators for his work on the social contribution adult education could make to the post-war reconstruction effort and for his battles against McCarthyesque notions of Americanism. The overwhelming concern of the field at that time was with adult education's role in creating and maintaining a democratic society. Yet in 30 short years we have snuffed out, or at least substantially dampened, the fire of social commitment that burned throughout Lindeman's life and in the field at that time. I have heard graduate students in adult education speak of Lindeman almost as a pedagogic technician, and of the field as an individualized educational consumer service through which students' learning styles and needs are monitored and fulfilled. (Brookfield, 1993, p. 122)

Social action and the praxis of freedom and power are not included within the "principles" set forth in the first ten pages of *The Meaning of Adult Education* (1926/1989), yet Lindeman's thought here may constitute the most valuable of the "visions" from the book to take adult education into the next century. One problem is that this early work of Lindeman is far from a manifesto for revolution: "If adults approach education with the end-in-view that their new knowledge is to be the instrument of a probable future revolution, they will almost certainly defeat the very purposes of learning. . . . Revolution is the last resort of a society which has lost faith in intelligence" (Lindeman, 1926/1989, p. 49). It is important to recognize that "Lindeman stopped short of advocating a fundamental restructuring of society in his prescriptions for reform" (Brookfield, 1987a, p. 135-136). Indeed, *The Meaning of Adult Education* (1926/1989) is not a manifesto for violent social revolution. Lindeman was astute enough to recognize that internal change, accomplished through "freedom," precedes external change. "Lindeman approached adult education as experimental social education, as a form of applied social science" (Stubblefield, 1987b, p. 60). Stubblefield (1981) seems to have understood the real "revolutionary vision" of the early Lindeman, the vision which should carry adult education into the next century:

> In [Lindeman's] view, persons who engage in adult education are striving to improve themselves; that is, to gain intelligence, power, self-expression, freedom. . . . But adult learners seek more than self-improvement. . . . They also want to change the social order, to create a social environment that permits their personalities to grow. Beyond self-improvement, adult education has a further purpose of helping adults understand the nature of their associational life . . . to equip adults to manage the threats to democracy. (p. 14)

In short, Lindeman recognized "the essential connection between power and growth" (Bullough, 1988, p. 297). He expressed total disdain for persons who "strive for power over other human beings" (Lindeman, 1926/1989, p. 35). He wrote in that book: "No human being can safely be trusted with power until he has learned how to exercise power over himself" (p. 28). Brookfield (1984) reported a lament by Cunningham that "current North American thought tends to be embedded firmly in psychological approaches and to ignore the political setting of adult education" (p. 194). Lindeman did not ignore the "political setting" in *The Meaning of Adult Education* (1926/1989); rather, he recognized the formative internal steps required in adults prior to their effecting external change, certainly a vision to be pursued in the next century.

5. REJECTION OF ELITISM AND SPECIALIZATION

Although Lindeman may not have advocated overt revolution to effect social change in *The Meaning of Adult Education* (1926/1989), he understood and articulated the need to reject the "gods" of elitism and specialization which he recognized have permeated the field. Elitism manifests itself in "tastes in art":

> The classic tradition in art is one of the many hurdles which adult learners must jump before they can participate freely and creatively in cultural enjoyments. Nothing so effectively dampens the ardors of appreciation as to be told by some formalist that the object being appreciated is unworthy, in bad taste. The proper retort is, of course, *Whose* taste...we must at all costs pay our respects to the goddess of classicism. The question of enjoyment does not enter the equation of this officialized culture – the problem is to get every one inoculated whether he likes it or not. (pp. 63, 66)

The role of adult education, to Lindeman, was "making all forms of artistic endeavor more democratic to their creation and dissemination," in a rejection of "artistic snobbery" (Brookfield, 1987a, p. 131).

Also feeling the wrath of Lindeman in 1926 was what he termed "specialism": "So long as our primary standards of valuation are pecuniary, educational institutions will be able to make but feeble resistance to specialism" (Lindeman, 1926/1989, p. 78). Lindeman recognized the threat of "consumer-driven" education provided by technocrats, citing his own educational background. He did not envision a world without "specialism"; rather, he envisioned specialists being able to "integrate their functions with respect to specific problems" (Lindeman, 1926/1989, p. 84). Without a doubt, this issue will rear its head in the next century; perhaps Lindeman's "vision" provides the resolution, as the issue challenges the very meaning of adult education.

CONCLUSION

Long, in his Preface to the 1989 edition of *The Meaning of Adult Education*, laments the tendency of scholars to divorce Lindeman from his historical context, and warns that doing so makes the book "take on an ahistorical character" (p. xiv). He presents the book as no more than a "useful commentary" (p. xxi). However, it is Kidd's preface to the 1961 edition of the book that is more interesting:

> But while much of the best thought in adult education stems, in part at least, from Lindeman, he is a *contemporary,* not a historical figure. We now present *The Meaning of Adult Education* not as an eloquent statement of genuine historical value (which it is) but for its power to illuminate the present and reveal the future (Kidd, 1989, p. xxvi).

Is *The Meaning of Adult Education* (1926/1989) still 'visionary,' still relevant as adult education enters the 21st century? This paper has suggested alternate pieces of the book which may serve as the "visionary charter" going forward. Stubblefield (1987a) said it best: "The relevance is not as a programming guide, a textbook, a blueprint for the learning society, or as a source of authority for or against some contemporary practice. Rather, the relevance lies deeper; it lies in the vision that Lindeman bestows upon our enterprise, and what we are about" (p. 115). Lindeman's book is indeed "organic" and, one suspects, one hundred years from now, adult education scholars will be selecting yet other less-publicized passages which may serve as the "vision" for their generations.

REFERENCES

Brookfield, S. (1983). Adult education and the democratic imperative: The vision of Eduard Lindeman as a contemporary charter for adult education. *Studies in Adult Education, 15*, 36-46.

Brookfield, S. (1984). The contribution of Eduard Lindeman to the development of theory and philosophy in adult education. *Adult Education Quarterly, 34*,185-196.

Brookfield, S. (1987a). Eduard Lindeman. In P. Jarvis (Ed.), *Twentieth century thinkers in adult education* (pp. 119-143). Beckenham, UK: Croom Helm.

Brookfield, S. (1987b). *Learning democracy: Eduard Lindeman on adult education and social change*. Beckenham, UK: Croom Helm.

Brookfield, S. (1993). [Review of the book *Friendly rebel: A personal and social history of Eduard C. Lindeman*]. *Adult Education Quarterly, 43*, 121-124.

Bullough, M. (1988). On Dewey and Lindeman: Some philosophical foundations toward cultural liberation from educational hegemony. *International Journal of Lifelong Education, 7*, 285-299.

Ilsley, P. (1982). The relevance of the future in adult education: A phenomenological analysis of images of the future (Doctoral dissertation, Northern Illinois University, 1982). *Dissertations Abstracts International 44*(01), 0043A.

Kidd, J. (1989). Editor's preface to the 1961 edition. In E. Lindeman, *The meaning of adult education* (pp. xxv-xxxvi). Norman, OK: Oklahoma Research Center for Continuing Professional and Higher Education.

Kolb, D. (1984). *Experiential learning*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Knowles, M. S. (1980). *The modern practice of adult education: From pedagogy to andragogy* (Rev. ed.). New York: Cambridge Adult Education.

Lindeman, E. (1989). *The meaning of adult education*. Norman, OK: Oklahoma Research Center for Continuing Professional and Higher Education. (Original work published 1926)

Long, H. (1989). Editor's preface to 1989 edition. *The meaning of adult education* (pp. xii-xxii). Norman, OK: Oklahoma Research Center for Continuing Professional and Higher Education.

Sisco, B. (1990). [Review of the book *Learning democracy: Eduard Lindeman on adult education and social change*]. *Adult Education Quarterly, 40*, 116-119.

Stewart, D. (1987). *Adult learning in America: Eduard Lindeman and his agenda for lifelong education*. Malabar, FL: Robert E. Krieger.

Stubblefield, H. (1981). The focus should be on life fulfillment. In B. Kretilow & Associates (Eds.), *Examining Controversies in Adult Education* (pp. 12-23). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Stubblefield, H. (1987a). [Review of the book *The meaning of adult education*]. *Adult Education Quarterly, 37*, 114-115.

Stubblefield, H. (1987b). [Review of the book *Adult learning in America: Eduard Lindeman and his agenda for lifelong education*]. *Adult Education Quarterly, 38*, 58-61.

Irwin H. Siegel, J.D., LL.M. Doctoral candidate, Assistant Professor, School of Business and Computer Technologies, Pennsylvania College of Technology, One College Avenue, Williamsport, PA 17701.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

AN APPLIED APPROACH TO PUBLIC EDUCATION AND OUTREACH: MEETING CRITERIA FOR LOCAL MEDIA

Sharon B. Stringer
Joan S. Thomson

ABSTRACT

As the role of information technology in public education continues to be defined, traditional outreach methods should also be re-examined. The media remain an efficient, cost-effective vehicle for public education. Adult educators who can utilize the media as an important outreach tool will impact public opinion, influence public policy, and improve the quality of life.

Within the context of agricultural information, this paper reports on an evaluation of seven information sources by Pennsylvania media and addresses strategies for adult educators to increase visibility in the media and enhance collaboration with local newspapers. Findings from the survey identify three criteria on which newspaper editors and reporters make their selections for sources.

A stratified random sample based on circulation was used to identify 31 managing editors and 45 reporters to evaluate agricultural news sources on their tendency to be 1) accessible, 2) supply unbiased, accurate information, and 3) explain information without making judgments.

Among the seven sources considered, Cooperative Extension and university faculty and staff were rated as the top two sources of agricultural information by Pennsylvania daily newspaper reporters and among the top three by editors. The high rating of university-based information sources may be explained by the commitment of adult educators to outreach and public education.

INTRODUCTION

Newspapers represent an important educational tool for adult educators. There are 1,586 daily newspapers in America (Editor & Publisher, 1993). More than three-quarters or 85% have circulations under 50,000 and are classified by the American Society of Newspaper Editors as "small newspapers." Most of Pennsylvania, for example, is comprised of small community dailies that publish predominantly local copy with a mix of state, national, and international wire service copy.

Clearly the media, and the opinion-leaders within the media, have the greatest impact on what the public knows about current issues. A reoccurring theme in newspaper research is the impact that media have on content (Buckalew, 1974; Tichenor, 1987; White, 1950). What stories are printed and on what sources journalists depend for content and context provide insight into how newspapers contribute to educating the public on policy issues.

BACKGROUND

Pember (1974) concluded that as much as 80% of the average newspaper's non-advertising content might originate from sources. Media routinely use powerful sources to frame the content of major stories, such as nuclear war (Rubins & Cummings, 1989), strikes (Glasgow University Media Group, 1976), or economic structures (Jensen, 1987). Furthermore, sources help to define and determine agricultural news in the newspaper (Dunwoody, 1980; Fishman, 1980).

Journalists make their judgments about the suitability of sources on the basis of a number of interrelated considerations. The news media that Gans (1979) studied indicated that if a source supplied suitable information in the past, they are apt to be chosen again and were eventually referenced regularly. Credibility, source accessibility and time pressures were identified as the most influential factors determining source usage, with 96% of the respondents indicating source credibility is always a factor (Powers & Fico, 1994).

Sources are considered productive if they can provide relevant information in a timely fashion. Gans (1979) determined that journalists look for sources that do not limit themselves to self-serving information, try to be accurate, and above all are honest. Sources who are cooperative, cordial, and in positions of formal authority are apt to be trusted more than others. Reasons given most often by reporters for relying on official sources included accessibility of the source, the sources' ability to explain procedures and proposals, and the ability of sources to supply reliable information (Powers & Fico, 1994).

Tichenor, Olien, Nnaemeka, and Donohue (1977) present an explanation to predict a source's success in placing news in the media. Using the Westley-MacLean's (1957) conceptual model as a framework for their hypotheses, Tichenor et al. (1967) concluded that Cooperative Extension agents' success in placing news in the media is more closely linked to situational factors and journalist values than to overt public relations activity, such as maintaining extensive face-to-face contact with the source.

This paper addresses journalists' preferences for agricultural news sources as indicated by Pennsylvania newspaper editors and reporters.

PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES

The research was guided by the following purpose and objectives:

1. To determine the importance of selected criteria used by editors and reporters to identify a news source.
2. To evaluate agricultural news sources by Pennsylvania editors and reporters using three criteria: (a) tendency to be accessible; (b) tendency to supply unbiased, accurate information; and (c) tendency to explain issues without making judgment.

The research addressed the following questions:

1. How important are selected criteria to editors and reporters when identifying news sources?
2. How do editors and reporters evaluate their sources of agricultural news?

METHODOLOGY

The population for the survey was managing editors at all 93 daily newspapers in Pennsylvania. Thirty-four newspapers were selected by stratified random sampling according to circulation size to permit comparisons among strata and to guarantee a representative sample of Pennsylvania newspapers. A 91% response rate, or 31 telephone interviews, were completed with executive or managing editors at Pennsylvania newspapers during January 1999. Using the names of reporters provided by the editors, 70 questionnaires were mailed and 45 questionnaires were completed by reporters, representing a 64% response rate. Nonrespondents were compared to respondents based on demographics. No significant difference was found between the two. Frequencies, means, and standard deviations were computed using SPSS analyzing package for the desktop.

FINDINGS

Among the 31 editors participating in the survey, 21 (67.7%) were male and more than three-quarters (24 of 31) of the editors had been in their current positions for less than 10 years. Over half of the editors (19 of 31) worked at newspapers that are independently or family-owned. Among the 45 reporters responding to the survey, 26 (57.8%) were male and more than half (27 of 45) had been in their current positions for five years or less.

Editors and reporters specified with what frequency they rely on seven sources of agricultural news: Cooperative Extension, farm organizations, Pennsylvania Department of Agriculture (PDA), private interest groups (i.e., Chesapeake Bay Foundation), trade and commodity groups such as the Pennsylvania Dairy Association, university faculty and staff, and the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA). Cooperative Extension was identified as the most frequently used source. More than one-quarter (28.9%) of the reporters indicated that they use Cooperative Extension as an agricultural news source at least once per week (see Table 1). University faculty and staff and farm organizations such as the Pennsylvania Farm Bureau were identified second and third, respectively by reporters.

Table 1
Editors' and Reporters' Frequency of Using Selected Agricultural News Sources

	Editors				Reporters			
	daily	weekly	monthly	<once/ month	n	weekly	monthly	<once/ month
Source	f (%)	f (%)	f (%)	f (%)		f (%)	f (%)	f (%)
Coop. Ext.	------	13 (44.8)	8 (27.6)	8 (27.6)	45	13(28.9)	18 (40)	14 (31.1)
University	2 (6.9)	7 (24.1)	7 (24.1)	13 (44.8)	44	4 (9.1)	13 (29.5)	27 (61.4)
Farm org.	1 (3.4)	4 (13.8)	5 (17.2)	19 (65.5)	44	3 (6.8)	12 (27.3)	29 (65.9)
USDA	------	4 (13.8)	5 (17.2)	20 (69.0)	43	2 (4.7)	8 (18.6)	33 (76.7)
PDA	------	3 (10.3)	8 (27.6)	18 (62.1)	43	1 (2.3)	14 (32.6)	28 (65.1)
Private interest	1 (3.4)	4 (13.8)	7 (24.1)	17 (58.6)	43	2 (4.7)	7 (16.3)	34 (79.1)
Trade	------	2 (6.9)	5 (17.2)	22 (75.9)	44	2 (4.5)	8 (18.2)	34 (77.3)

The most frequent response by both editors and reporters to how often they use agricultural news sources was "less than once per month." While 16 (55.1%) of the editors indicated that they use university faculty and staff as a news source at least monthly, only 17 (38.6%) of the reporters indicated the same.

Using a scale of one to four with one being very important and four not important, reporters were asked to indicate the importance of six factors: 1) ease of access; 2) ability to supply unbiased, accurate information; 3) time pressures; 4) source's ability to explain information; 5) recommendation by colleagues; and 6) personal relationship with source. Reporters indicated that a source's ability to supply unbiased, accurate information (88.9%); source's ability to explain information (55.6%); ease of access to source (57.8%); and time pressures (51.5%) are very important when identifying a source (see Table 2). In addition, more than one-third of the reporters indicated that time pressures (17 of 45) and ability to explain information (16 of 45) are important when identifying news sources. Almost half (46.7%) indicated that a personal relationship was not important at all while 13 of 45 (28.9%) indicated that it is somewhat important.

Table 2
Reporters' Ratings of the Importance of Six Factors When Identifying News Sources (n=45)

	very important	important	somewhat important	not important
Factor	f (%)	f (%)	f (%)	f (%)
accessibility	26 (57.8)	11 (24.4)	7 (15.6)	1 (2.2)
supply unbiased, accurate information	40 (88.9)	4 (8.9)	1 (2.2)	----
time pressures	23 (51.1)	17 (37.8)	4 (8.9)	1 (2.2)
info w/o judgment	25 (55.6)	16 (35.6)	4 (8.9)	----
recommendation by colleagues	4 (8.9)	10 (22.2)	20 (44.4)	11 (24.4)
personal relationship w/ source	4 (8.9)	7 (15.6)	13 (28.9)	21 (46.7)

Editors rated Cooperative Extension, farm organizations, and the PDA most favorably on their tendency to be accessible. The means for accessibility were 1.16, 1.24, and 1.28, respectively (see Table 3). The United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) was rated least favorably on accessibility by editors with a mean score of 1.76. Editors rated university faculty and staff (mean = 1.34) midway between the Cooperative Extension and the USDA.

Table 3
Editors' and Reporters' Rankings of Agricultural News Sources on Their Tendency to be Accessible

	Editors' Accessibility rating (n=31)			Reporters' Accessibility rating(n=45)		
	Mean*	S.D.	Ranking	Mean*	S.D.	Ranking
Source						
Coop. Ext.	1.16	.69	1	1.60	.62	1
Farm org.	1.24	.83	2	2.15	.83	3
PDA	1.28	1.13	3	2.17	.96	4
University	1.34	.94	4	2.33	.76	6
Trade	1.45	1.09	5	2.29	.84	5
Private interest	1.48	1.09	6	2.08	.86	2
USDA	1.76	.83	7	2.37	.94	7

*Scores ranged from 1 (always) to 4 (never).

Reporters also rated Cooperative Extension most favorably on their tendency to be accessible (mean = 1.60). Private interest groups and farm organizations received the second and third highest ratings, mean scores 2.08 and 2.15, respectively. Reporters also gave the USDA their least favorable rating on accessibility (mean = 2.37).

Editors gave their most favorable rating for tendency to supply unbiased, accurate information to the PDA (mean = 1.24) and their second most favorable rating to university faculty and staff (mean = 1.34; see Table 4). Their least favorable rating went to private interest groups (mean = 2.26). Reporters rated Cooperative Extension as the most unbiased and accurate of the seven sources (mean = 1.48) and like editors, rated university faculty and staff second, mean = 1.77. Rated least favorably by both editors and reporters were private interest groups (means = 2.26 and 2.90, respectively).

Table 4
Editors' and Reporters' Rankings of Agricultural News Sources on Their Tendency to Supply Unbiased, Accurate Information

	Editors			Reporters		
	Mean*	S.D	Ranking	Mean*	S.D	Ranking
Source						
PDA	1.24	1.06	1	1.85	.87	3
University	1.34	.90	2	1.77	.66	2
Coop. Ext.	1.39	.80	3	1.48	.59	1
USDA	1.59	.71	4	2.00	.92	4
Farm org.	1.86	1.27	5	2.33	.78	5
Trade	1.90	1.35	6	2.78	.58	6
Private interest	2.26	1.53	7	2.90	.60	7

*Scores ranged from 1 (always) to 4 (never).

Editors gave their most favorable rating to the PDA, (mean = 1.24; see Table 5). However, reporters gave their most favorable rating to the Cooperative Extension (mean = 1.60). Although editors' evaluation scores were more favorable, both editors and reporters agreed that university faculty and staff ranked second. Editors' mean score for university faculty and staff was 1.38; for reporters the score was 1.78.

Table 5
Editors' and Reporters' Rankings of Agricultural News Sources on Their Tendency to Explain Information Without Making Judgments

	Editors (n=31)			Reporters (n=45)		
	Mean*	S.D	Ranking	Mean*	S.D.	Ranking
Source						
PDA	1.24	1.06	1	1.95	.86	3
University	1.38	1.01	2	1.78	.66	2
Coop. Ext.	1.42	.81	3	1.60	.66	1
Trade	1.86	1.33	4	2.81	.62	6
Farm org.	1.89	1.31	5	2.44	.72	5
USDA	1.94	.93	6	2.03	.90	4
Private interest	2.19	1.49	7	2.90	.68	7

*Scores ranged from 1 (always) to 4 (never).

Overall mean scores evaluating the sources of agricultural news were compared for editors and reporters. Across all factors, editors gave the PDA their first place rating and private interest groups their least favorable rating. Reporters gave the Cooperative Extension their first place rating and private interest groups and trade groups tied for their lowest or sixth place rating. Overall, both groups rated Cooperative Extension and university faculty and staff among their top three sources for agricultural news.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Sources play an important role in helping journalists inform the public. Both editors and reporters use many criteria when selecting sources. While time pressures, recommendations by colleagues, and personal relations can affect the frequency with which sources are used, three factors were identified as most important. Both editors and reporters agreed that ease of access; tendency to supply unbiased, accurate information; and tendency to supply information without making judgments are qualities most preferred of sources. Of the seven sources considered, Cooperative Extension, farm organizations, PDA, university faculty and staff, trade and commodity groups, private interest groups, and USDA, both editors and reporters ranked university faculty and staff first, trade and commodity organizations fifth, and USDA last on their tendency to be accessible.

Administrators of adult education offices should insist that the public is not denied applicable research information at the expense of personnel workload. To encourage the accessibility of news sources, administrators should keep workloads reasonably dispersed. Furthermore, to minimize the dissemination of inaccurate or judgmental information, staff should regularly convene to discuss timely dissemination of information, personal contacts with the media, and accurate interpretation of scientific data. In addition, administrators should consider that if adult educators can help journalists inform the public as quickly as possible, they can remain a key resource for newspaper editors and reporters.

Success with the media requires the following practices of adult educators: 1) be accessible, 2) provide accurate, unbiased information, and 3) explain issues without making judgments. Workshops that include media, university personnel, as well as media consumers would appropriately enhance dialogue among all communicators, ultimately improving the amount of information disseminated to the public. Adult educators that regularly address media criteria can increase their visibility in the community, enhance their accountability with stakeholders, and maintain their credibility with the media.

REFERENCES

Buckalew, J. K. (1974). The radio news gatekeeper and his sources. *Journalism Quarterly, 51*, 602-606.

Dunwoody, S. (1980). The science writing inner club: A communication link between science and the lay public. *Science, Technology and Human Values 5*(3), 14-22.

Editor & Publisher. (1997). *Editor & Publisher international yearbook.* New York: Author.

Fishman, M. (1980). *Manufacturing the news*. Austin, TX: University of Texas Press.

Gans, H. J. (1979). *Deciding what's news: A study of CBS evening news, NBC Nightly News, Newsweek, and Time*. New York: Vintage Books.

Glasgow University Media Group. (1976). *Bad news*. Boston: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Jensen, K. B. (1987). News as ideology: Economic statistics and political ritual in television network news. *Journal of Communication, 37*, 8-27.

Pember, D. R. (1974). *Mass media in America*. Chicago: Science Research Associates.

Powers, A., & Fico, F. (1994). Influences on use of sources at large US newspapers. *Newspaper Research Journal, 15*(4), 87-97.

Rubins, D. M., & Cummings, C. (1989). Nuclear war and its consequences on television news. *Journal of Communication, 39*, 39-58.

Tichenor, P. J. (1987). Effect of use of metro dailies on knowledge gap. *Journalism Quarterly, 64*, 329-226.

Tichenor, P. J., Olien. C. N., Nnaemeka, A. I., & Donohue, G. A. (1977, April). *Newspapers and adult understanding of public affairs: Two longitudinal community studies*. Paper presented at the Adult Education Research Conference, Minneapolis, MN. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 138 790)

Westley, B. H., & MacLean, Jr., M. S. (1957). A conceptual model for communications research. *Journalism Quarterly, 34*, 31-38.

White, D. M. (1950). The gate keeper: A case study in the selection of news. *Journalism Quarterly, 27*, 383-390.

Sharon B. Stringer, Assistant Professor, Journalism and Mass Communication, Lock Haven University.

Joan S. Thomson, Associate Professor, Agricultural and Extension Education, Pennsylvania State University. jthomson@psu.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

ONE OF THE BOYS? WOMEN'S EXPERIENCES IN MALE-DOMINATED VOCATIONAL-TECHNICAL MAJORS

Mary A. Sullivan

ABSTRACT

This study sought to determine the barriers, self-perceptions and classroom experiences of women prior to their entry into the nontraditional, "blue-collar" workforce. A qualitative case study approach was used with one-on-one interviewing of 11 women enrolled in nontraditional majors at Pennsylvania College of Technology. Data analysis revealed findings centered around difficulties and barriers encountered in and out of the classroom. Central to the difficulties and barriers were issues of socialization, sexual harassment, isolation and alienation. Strategies employed in order to be successful within a male-dominated field also emerged including hands-on learning, compartmentalization, positive perceptions and utilization of socialized behaviors.

INTRODUCTION

The Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor (1996) reports that only 6% of women are in careers categorized as "nontraditional." Women tend to cluster in just 20 of the 400 identified job categories (Kerka, 1993). These statistics are frightening as we acknowledge that failure to encourage women in the classroom and workplace wastes a substantial portion of our country's resources. Yet women who wish to enter nontraditional fields are less likely to be encouraged and rewarded for their efforts, finding lack of advancement opportunity, inequities in salaries, "token" status and discriminatory employment policies and procedures (Stitt, 1995).

Yet the importance of these fields cannot be underestimated. As science and technology continue to alter the way in which we live our lives, it is crucial that our country produces a skilled and viable workforce. If females are not encouraged to pursue technical college majors or are discouraged from entering fields of math and science, the implications for women and our society as a whole are staggering.

Are women who are choosing to breakdown gender stereotypes by opting for nontraditional majors being "rewarded" for their efforts or are they facing additional difficulties and barriers because they are women? Specifically, this study sought to determine these women's perceptions of themselves as learners in nontraditional, vocational-technical majors and to examine the role of gender in their vocational classrooms.

RESEARCH METHOD

This study involved a qualitative design with phenomenological interviewing (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992) and thematic analyses of transcribed interviews (LeCompte & Priessle, 1993) with 11 adult women enrolled in nontraditional majors at Penn College.

The selection of research participants was based on specific criteria established prior to conducting the research. Women chosen for the study were age 24 and above, and enrolled either full-time or part-time in a four-year or two-year nontraditional college major. Women who had attempted or completed 40 or more credit hours were targeted.

FINDINGS

DIFFICULTIES AND BARRIERS

Sex role socialization presented each participant with difficulties and barriers solely based on the fact that she was a woman. Sex stereotyping negatively affects women early in their education. Girls are often overtly or subtly discouraged from taking math and science courses in high school (Broadhurst, 1988). Girls grow up to be women who have concerns with their academic performance and less confidence in their abilities in an academic setting when compared to male classmates. This was evident in the results of this study. Each of the women in this study expressed a general concern about her academic abilities upon entry into her major as well as describing specific concerns with math and science. All 11 women cited poor high school preparation as a difficulty. Many exhibited a "fear of failure."

Socialization also played a strong role in the comfort level and experience with technology as it related to these women's majors. For the most part, women are not encouraged to become comfortable and competent with machinery and equipment (Broadhurst, 1988). Of the women participating in this study, nine mentioned their lack of "hands-on" experience as a barrier. Lucy illustrates that point: "Being a woman, I was never prepared for this. Men are prepared to work in machine shops, prepared to work on cars, prepared to work in physical labor. Women are . . . clean house, sew, cook."

Socialization of women in the U.S. has also included a strong need for affiliation from same sex peers (Lipps, 1993). Part of the affiliation relates to a need for support and the desire to feel their decisions are accepted by others. Non-supportive parents, spouses, friends and children were mentioned by eight of the women as an additional barrier in the quest toward completing a degree.

Women often experience role strain in their attempt to juggle multiple responsibilities. Social pressures dictate to women what roles they are expected to perform (Gerdes, 1995). The women in this study experienced role strain based upon demands placed upon them with work, children, spouses and school. Time management was seen as a barrier to achieving one's best for several of the women. Connie's concerns are representative of the group interviewed:

> The hardest thing for me was that I have five kids, I work, I go to school. I couldn't just turn around and go home and just kick back and watch TV. I still had to go home, feed the kids, bathe the kids and help with homework. Late at night . . . I was doing my homework.

As the women shared more of their classroom experiences and perceptions, a theme of "woman as outsider" emerged, further illustrating the difficulties these women faced in nontraditional majors. Instances that could be categorized as sexual harassment, creating a hostile classroom environment, were reported by several women. Lucy's experiences illustrate:

> I had one (faculty member) who didn't want a woman in class---he told me so. He walked in and said, "What are you doing here?" I said, "I'm in your class." He said, "No, you're not." I came in the next day and he said, "Are you still here?" . . . He totally ignored me the first two weeks of class.

These women were also the subject of ridicule, gossip and scrutiny within their classrooms. There were instances in which they were laughed at when answering questions and times during which they were used as a "bad example" in class.

Feelings of isolation, alienation and of being "singled-out" also emerged from these women as they told of their classroom experiences. Marilyn felt isolated and ostracized by her classmates stating, "They don't talk to you. . . . You're back in grade school where they don't even want to sit around you."

Being enrolled in vocational-technical majors, these women found that "hands-on" lab experiences were a large part of their curricula. Yet, labs proved to be especially challenging for some of the women. Men often "took charge" and didn't want the women to use the lab equipment. Sally described an incident in which her lab partners knowingly gave her instruments that were broken. Others relayed instances during which they were assigned menial tasks by male lab partners.

Lab frustrations were compounded by some faculty who treated women differently from the men in the lab settings. In some cases, faculty denied women opportunities to work with machinery because they felt the women would be injured or be a threat to others' safety. Marilyn said, "I had a machining class that was a little awkward. The teacher wasn't sure how to handle a woman. You could sense he was very uncomfortable. He was afraid I was going to get hurt."

SUCCESS STRATEGIES

Despite the multiple obstacles facing them in and out of the classroom, these women were able to be successful in their attempt to earn a degree while managing the other factors in their lives. These women used four primary approaches to maintain their traditional roles at home while managing student roles within a nontraditional classroom: compartmentalization, hands-on learning, adoption of positive perceptions and utilization of socialized behaviors.

Compartmentalization was used very effectively as a "survival" strategy. For at least five women in the study, a separation of roles was how they chose to maintain their home and school responsibilities. This was especially true for the married women in the study. Cathy talked about doing her homework at school whenever possible. "If I go home, I don't work on it because I try to separate it. That way I have time with my family," she said. Other married women admitted that they placated their husbands by tending to their spouses' needs before addressing schoolwork. They tried not to talk about school around their husbands and often "felt guilty" if they worked on schoolwork rather than housework when at home.

Although Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule (1986) and Sandler, Silverberg, and Hall (1996) have studied the classroom environment and found that there are specific ways of speaking and interacting that are indigenous to women, with the exception of Lucy and Joie, none of the women claimed to "learn differently" from the men in their classes. Eight of the 11 interviewed described a natural ability and enjoyment of learning activities that involved "hands-on" activities. For these women then, some of the success in their major was based upon their choice of a vocational-technical major involving heavy use of lab and "hands-on" experience. A "white-collar" nontraditional major such a law or engineering may not have fit with these women's learning preferences, and they may not have been as successful. Those women "squeezed out" of these types of learning situations by faculty and students were placed at a greater disadvantage; they were forced to learn information without benefit of their preferred mode of learning while being denied the experience needed to increase their confidence and skills.

A third strategy these women employed for success can be credited to the power of positive thinking. Despite experiencing incidents of harassment, isolation and alienation by the men in their classrooms, women did not feel dismissed or diminished by these actions. The women in this study had very positive reactions about their education and their experience at Penn College. They survived and succeeded by refusing to recognize their treatment as an "outsider." Their success was based on an internal perception and external acknowledgment of the positive aspects of their majors rather than the negative ones.

Perhaps the most commonly used success strategy was that of socialization and how these women used it to their advantage within their nontraditional majors. Despite the real and perceived difficulties and barriers these women faced in classrooms and labs, each relied on socialized behaviors to facilitate their academic endeavors. In some instances, male behaviors and traits were adopted; in others, female behaviors were put into place to ensure success. Some of the behaviors were conscious efforts on the part of the women while others were unconscious "lapses" into traditional behaviors used in the past by these women.

Male behaviors. At some point, 8 of the 11 women used aggressive or assertive behavior in a classroom or lab. Lucy was perhaps the most aggressive of the women:

I was never afraid to be a woman in a man's world. I always felt more comfortable in their positions because I was very assertive and open. I wasn't afraid to get my hands dirty and go in and knock heads together when necessary...I have a chip on my shoulder and there ain't nobody bigger, badder, meaner or uglier than what I am. God help them if they get in my way. And if you don't like it, get out of my way 'cause I'll roll over you. You screw with me, I'll have your ass. That's basically the way it is and they've been told.

A second male behavior adopted by these women to ensure their success involved competition. Males are said to embrace a more competitive classroom atmosphere (Belenky et al., 1986; Gilligan, 1982) while women prefer a more collaborative, supportive atmosphere. Yet in order for some of these women to be successful, they adopted a more competitive attitude toward their learning.

Off-color humor with sexual over-tones was another strategy adopted by some of the women. Humor was used by some to help build relationships with classmates and by others as a means of "fitting in" by emphasizing sameness rather than differences.

Risk-taking was another stereotypical male behavior employed as a success strategy. Several of the women had "just do it" philosophies regarding their major; that is, they were not defensive about their choice of major and were open and willing to try and fail. Angelica stated:

When women decide to do this they ought to just do it. Don't think about it. Don't get a chip on your shoulder, just do it. Because when you get a chip on your shoulder, . . . it's not going to work or you're going to struggle more.

Female behaviors. By far the most widespread strategy for success was not for these women to adopt "masculinized" behaviors but to return to familiar patterns of socialization in which they behaved in "typically female" ways and the most apparent socialized strategy for success used by all of these women was that of seeking support. In each instance, the women sought and received support from someone. If a woman didn't receive support at home, she received it at school. If faculty were found to be less than supportive, the women's children were highly supportive.

For the most part, the women who were married tended to feel that their husbands were supportive "to an extent." That extent usually consisted of financial support and the occasional "atta boy" in which the husband told his wife he was proud of her. Support did not usually extend into the traditional role of caregiver and homemaker. Women who were married and had children still performed the majority of childcare and housekeeping duties.

The largest, most encompassing source of support was parental. Nine of the 11 women reported receiving support from parents. The support ranged from verbal encouragement to financial help. Individual faculty members at Penn College were also a source of support. While there were instances of harassment and chilly climate, the women perceived these as isolated. For the majority of the women, each named one or two male faculty who were viewed as supportive, nurturing and friendly. Quite often, these faculty were used as confidantes by these women, helping them work through issues or problems they encountered at home or school.

A second "feminine" strategy for success, closely aligned with seeking support, was that of building relationships. The women of this study sought to build relationships in several manners. In some cases, they "attached" themselves to a peer in class. In other cases, they sought help from classmates; in still other instances, they sought help from faculty. Several women mentioned that they provided help to struggling classmates when asked. Most often, these women sought to build relationships by forming friendships with classmates.

Several of the women used a third socialized strategy—avoidance—to allow them to be successful. If women are to be "seen and not heard" in a "man's world," then these women were effective in detaching themselves from this world. Lori "didn't get too close to the guys" and "kept her distance." Leslie's advice on succeeding in a lab setting was to "keep your mouth shut. It's a guy thing. If they think you don't know, then they're ok with you being there."

Of those interviewed, five of the women used a socialized strategy that represented adaptation and "accommodation" to behaviors exhibited by their classmates or to the classroom environment itself. These women described a need for them to change their viewpoints. Lori was one of the women who quickly learned to "accommodate" to survive:

> Working with anybody, you have to see where the other side is coming from. You have to put yourself in their shoes. Since we're going into a male-oriented field, you have to adapt. They're not going to adapt to us.

CONCLUSION

The women of this study learned to function as "one of the boys" yet still felt alienated. They recognized that, in order to succeed, they needed to act as both women and men. Yet their attempts at gender transformation continued to disadvantage them because they could not overcome their greatest barrier: no matter how much they adapted, assimilated and accommodated, they would always be women.

Even those who appeared to have been accepted by men may have been granted nothing more than "token" status, which also impacted their chances for success. Having been granted this status the women were under pressure to conform to both professional standards, which are culturally consistent with male gender roles, and societal standards of acceptable femininity (Frehill, 1997).

The barriers of tokenism, harassment and socialization are not solely created by the men and women enrolled in these majors. There is a structural perspective that must be considered. It's true that men and women walk into their classrooms with decades of socialization impacting their thoughts, words and deeds. Yet the classroom is a reflection of the institution as a whole. These were not just women who found themselves to be the only women in classrooms of men. They must be viewed as women who contended with men who dominated their classrooms, their curricula, and the higher education institution they chose to attend. They are also women who, in most cases, contend with men who will dominate their personal and professional lives. The issue then is more than mere socialization.

The women of this study were neither pathbreakers nor feminists. In general, they were quite traditional in their gender role orientation, which acted as both an obstacle and a coping mechanism in their efforts to earn their degrees. These women chose to remain blissfully unaware of or purposefully silent in respect to the dynamics of tokenism and sexism that existed around them. For them, gender was not an issue in their classroom interactions, yet evidence points to the contrary. In most cases, gender was the sole issue in their classroom interactions.

REFERENCES

Belenky, M., Clinchy, B., Goldberger, N., & Tarule, J. (1986). *Women's ways of knowing: The development of self, voice, and mind.* New York: Basic Books.

Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (1992). *Qualitative research for education* (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Broadhurst, K. (1988). Solving the exclusion problem: The key to sex equitable education in math, science and technology. In A. O. Carelli (Ed.), *Sex Equity in Education* (pp. 145-156). Springfield, IL: Charles Thomas.

Frehill, L. M. (1997). Subtle sexism in engineering. In N. V. Benokraitis (Ed.*), Subtle Sexism: Current Practice and Prospects for change* (pp. 117-135). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Gerdes, E. P. (1995). Women preparing for traditionally male professions: Physical and psychological symptoms associated with work and home stress. *Sex Roles*, 32, 787-807.

Gilligan, C. (1982). *In a different voice.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Kerka, S. (1993). *Gender equity in vocational education* (Trends and Issues Alerts). Columbus, OH: ERIC Clearinghouse for Adult, Career, and Vocational Education. (ERIC Document Service No. ED 358 376)

LeCompte, M. D., & Preissle, J. (1993). *Ethnography and qualitative design in educational research* (2nd ed.). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Lipps, H. M. (1993). Bifurcation of a common path: Gender splitting on the road to engineering and physical science careers. *Initiatives, 55*(3), 13-22.

Sandler, B. R., Silverberg, L. A., & Hall, R. A. (1996). *The chilly classroom climate: A guide to improve the education of women.* Washington, DC: The National Association of Women.

Stitt, B. A. (1995). Unlocking the perceived barriers to nontraditional employment. *American Technical Education Association Journal, 22*(3), 7-10.

Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor. (1996). *Labor force quiz*. Washington, DC: Author.

Mary A. Sullivan, Ed.D., Director of Academic Support Services, Pennsylvania College of Technology, One College Avenue, Williamsport, PA 17701

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

Penn State's Master's Degree in Adult Education Online: Emerging Research Questions in Teaching for the World Campus

Melody Thompson
Eunice N. Askov

ABSTRACT

The research and evaluation effort of Penn State's World Campus is meant to support the goal of providing Penn State's distance students with a positive learning experience that is productive and satisfying. Evaluation of the student perspective focuses on issues of access, learning outcomes, and satisfaction. However, the student perspective is only one factor in the development of educationally sound, socially responsible, and fiscally viable programs. Evaluation must also support the goal of maintaining and enhancing the academic reputation of participating departments and the University as a whole through provision of a learning experience that is not only convenient, but also as rigorous and complete as that offered to resident instruction students. Understandably, with the introduction of graduate programs into the World Campus portfolio, this latter consideration is coming even more to the forefront of the evaluation project. It also adds research questions to the evaluation study.

As the World Campus matures and expands, identifying, implementing, and evaluating the proper balance of elements necessary to satisfy the sometimes complementary, sometimes conflicting needs of multiple stakeholder groups—students, faculty, institution, and society—will be an important and continuing challenge.

EVALUATION OF WORLD CAMPUS PROGRAMS TO DATE

The evaluation of student aspects of the World Campus experience focuses on issues of

- Access
- Student perceptions of learning effectiveness
- Student satisfaction

Information relating to these elements has been gathered in a variety of ways including through registration information, interviews, and surveys.

ACCESS

Many adult students choose distance study because barriers—such as location, lack of time, and multiple roles—block their enrollment in on-campus courses or programs. Geographic distance from a higher education institution is a major barrier to conventional study. In a study of distance students at four universities, distance from campus was viewed as "very important" or "somewhat important" by 75% of those surveyed (Hezel & Dirr, 1991).

Increasingly, however, students are reporting that their motivation to study on-line comes from feeling time-bound, even more than from being place-bound. In one study, 95% of the respondents identified time constraints as a "very important" or "somewhat important" barrier to resident instruction. Similar findings have been reported by other researchers (e.g., Thompson, 1998). The multiple roles that most students fill contribute to their sense of being time-bound. Many students, particularly women, are unable to fit conventional study, with its rigid scheduling and often inconvenient location, into schedules that are already overburdened. As a result, access that is not limited by geography or an institution's inflexible business hours can be a significant factor in students' overall performance in and satisfaction with an educational program (Annenberg/CPB Project, 1994; Hyatt, 1992; Willis, 1995).

Results

Demographic information gathered through the registration process indicates that the World Campus has, indeed, increased access to students. To date, over 950 new students have joined the Penn State community through the World Campus, and together have accounted for more than 1300 individual registrations. Over 60% of these students are located outside of Pennsylvania in other U.S. locations and in 17 other countries. In answer to the question, "Had it not been for the World Campus, could you have gotten this course or a similar course anywhere else?" 76.7% of respondents answered "No," indicating the importance of the World Campus in providing access to educational programs.

STUDENT LEARNING AND SATISFACTION

Although students want their *access* to programming to be different (that is, more flexible) than that which characterizes resident instruction, they *do not* want any differences in the quality of course materials or instruction. Distance learners, like resident students, need access to an educational experience that goes beyond access to content; they need opportunities to participate in a learning environment that connects students to content, to instructors, to other students, and to support services, and research suggests that the quality of content, instruction, and support are major factors in student satisfaction with distance learning (Tallman, 1994).

Results

Student experiences in the World Campus have been studied through individual interviews and end-of-course on-line surveys. Both methods were used to query students on their performance in and satisfaction with their learning activities. Self-reports of learning gains indicate that World Campus students perceive the World Campus as an effective environment for informational as well as higher order learning, and attitudinal data indicate high levels of student satisfaction with their on-line learning experiences.

Following are data relating several key questions from the evaluation survey completed by 164 of 224 students taking courses in Spring 1999. Percentages reported reflect the proportion of World Campus respondents choosing the two most positive choices on a 5-point scale relating to these elements:

Course Element	Satisfied or Very Satisfied
Overall satisfaction	84%
Amount of new knowledge	83%
Communication with faculty	82%
Communication with peers	82%
Course technology	70%
"Absolutely will [or am]" or "Probably will" take another World Campus course	87%

EVALUATION OF GRADUATE PROGRAMS

Until recently, all World Campus programs were certificate, rather than degree, programs. As Penn State begins to offer full graduate programs through the World Campus, questions about the ability of on-line instruction to provide a rich and complete learning experience are understandably becoming even more intense and pointed.

Because the concept of residency has long been the keystone of graduate study, the term "graduate education at a distance" might at first glance seem to be an oxymoron. However, when the graduate residency experience is examined not from the perspective of the traditional form residency has taken in the past, but rather from the desired objectives of that experience, the concepts of "distance" and "graduate education" may be seen as compatible, rather than mutually exclusive. In order to test the validity of this suggestion, the evaluation of the World Campus Master's Degree of Adult Education program focuses on the extent to which courses individually, and the program as a whole, achieve the objectives of graduate residency as well as other specific learning outcomes.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK:
THE OBJECTIVES OF THE GRADUATE RESIDENCY EXPERIENCE

As part of early discussions of the viability of on-line instruction for study leading to professional master's degrees, The Committee on Programs and Courses of Penn State's Graduate Council met with academic administrators from the Department of Distance Education/World Campus to study the relationship between residency and on-line programs. The resulting document, "Fulfilling the Essential Elements of Residency in Off-Campus Professional Master's Degree Programs," identified the objectives of the residency experience associated with professional master's degrees and suggested strategies for meeting these objectives on line. Following are those essential elements and suggested strategies for achieving them in the on-line environment of the World Campus. These objectives are the performance indicators by which the "completeness" of a graduate program is meant to be assessed.

Interaction Between Faculty Members and Students Beyond Direct Instruction

The objectives of out-of-class interaction include socializing students to their professional fields, providing a broad exposure to developments in the disciplines, supporting the students in their academic programs and career and professional development, and building a community of scholars and professionals. In on-line instruction, mentoring and counseling can be conducted via telephone and/or electronic mail. Faculty members can use computer conferencing or audioconferencing for open discussion of ideas and issues related to the professional field but not limited to specific course content. Non-class lectures and seminars can be offered via computer conferencing on the World Wide Web to provide students with opportunities to interact with specialists from either the campus or around the world.

Interaction Among Students in a Given Program

The primary objective of interaction among students is to permit students to share and benefit from the diverse social and educational experiences other students bring into the program. Strategies for achieving this type of interaction on-line include Internet-based collaborative work groups that allow students to pool their varied knowledge, skills, and experiences in approaching case-study preparation, project development, class presentations, etc.; peer counseling (via telephone or e-mail) by senior graduate students to provide advice on academic issues such as preparation for exams and administrative procedures; and computer-mediated chat groups and/or bulletin boards to support discipline-based student clubs and inter-disciplinary social organizations.

Access to Information and Instructional Resources (e.g., Libraries, Laboratories, and Research Facilities)

The intent of this objective is to expand the educational experiences afforded to students beyond what can be provided by instructors. This goal is accomplished by giving students access to content experts other than the program's instructors and to a broad range of discipline-specific and interdisciplinary resources. In the on-line environment, seminars and workshops with experts around the world, structured and facilitated by the instructor through computer conferencing, can greatly expand the geographic range from which these experts can be drawn. CD-ROMs, on-line searches, and electronic connections to library and other data collections complement the information and knowledge provided by instructors in the on-line classroom. From these and other sources students gather the raw materials they need to develop a personal knowledge base and a coherent approach to their field of study. Because most on-line higher education students are working adults pursuing professional continuing education, many will be able to access to research/practicum facilities in their own work environments. Such "situated" research and practice provides an excellent way for students to integrate classroom knowledge with new knowledge gained from research and practice.

Exposure to and Socialization in the Field of Study

This objective focuses on the range of educational experiences needed to introduce students to the language and issues of their disciplines. Seminar series, workshops, research exhibitions, discussions with professional peers, informal departmental activities, and other shared experiences serve this purpose for resident students. On-line, small groups of peers can use computer conferencing or audio conferencing to discuss a seminar topic introduced by an outside expert or a member of the group. Skill-enhancement workshops on specific aspects of professional practice, such as writing for publication or designing effective conference presentations, can be offered by faculty or practicing professionals via computer conference or the World Wide Web. Web-based multi-media "poster-sessions" or presentations by students of in-process or completed research can offer an opportunity to network with others who share their research interests or suggest possible directions for personal research. For discussions with professional peers students can be encouraged to participate in regional and/or national conferences and professional society meetings in their geographic areas. Additionally, faculty members can structure and facilitate student participation in the on-line pre- and post-conference discussions that are being incorporated into many academic conferences.

Ready Access to Suitable Academic Advising and Support Services

This objective focuses on ensuring that students receive the guidance and personal support required to complete their programs in a successful and timely manner. On-line students can meet with an academic adviser or student support staff via telephone or electronic mail. General policies and procedures can be posted electronically for access at the student's convenience, and support related to administrative functions (registration, payments, grades, etc.) can be provided by telephone or e-mail. The faculty member with general responsibility for the off-campus program can be available by telephone or e-mail to answer questions or direct students to the right source of information about broader issues relating to a student's program.

Contribution of Graduate Students to the Degree Program, the College, and the University

The objective of exposure to the contributions from graduate students of diverse backgrounds is to share the social and educational experiences students bring into the program, the college, and the university to the benefit of other students, faculty, and the university overall. Introduction of new students can be accomplished through program or departmental newsletters disseminated traditionally (i.e., via the postal system) or sent electronically to students and faculty. Programs may also develop Web pages that include information about the professional interests and contributions of both new and continuing students, and students can develop personal Web pages on which to share information about themselves. Many graduate students in professional degree programs bring with them considerable knowledge and experience gained through real-world practice. These students can present informal seminars on-line to exchange knowledge and engage in peer networking around topics of mutual professional interest.

Identification with Penn State

The objective of identification with Penn State is to provide students with a unique educational experience that reflects the history, reputation, personnel, and resources of Penn State. All of the activities described above should contribute to this goal. Official communications, university publications, and participation in local chapters of professional or academic associations are additional ways to meet this objective. Like their on-campus counterparts, off-campus students receive official communications that establish their relationship with a department and with the University. Prominent display of university logos and other identifying symbols on all communications, including course materials, can help establish a student's identity with the institution. Small 'gifts' such as bumper stickers or folders can be useful in establishing a positive feeling toward the university, as well as giving off-campus students a way to display their institutional affiliation. Off-campus students can receive appropriate University publications via land mail. Some publications, such as the student-published newspaper, are available on line and provide informative and entertaining ways of establishing a sense of identification with the University. Finally, students can be informed of and can be encouraged to join the institutional chapter of appropriate academic and professional societies. Off-campus students can receive information about the availability and location of chapters in their geographic area via land mail or electronically. Programs can also establish a mentoring system whereby graduates are matched up with current off-campus students in their geographic region for the purpose of helping them connect to local University and professional activities.

CONCLUSION

The objectives and supporting activities described above in effect comprise an important set of performance indicators for guiding the evaluation strategy and research questions for all professional master's degree programs at Penn State, including that offered by the Adult Education Program. Data will be gathered around these performance indicators as the first course in the Adult Education M.Ed. degree is launched in Spring 2000.

REFERENCES

Annenberg/CPB Project. (1994). *Going the distance*. Washington, DC: Author.

Hezel, R., & Dirr, P. (1991). Understanding television-based distance education: Identifying barriers to university attendance. *Research in Distance Education, 3*(1), 2–5.

Hyatt, S. (1992, May). *Developing and managing a multi-modal distance learning program in the two-year college*. Paper presented at the Annual International Conference of the National Institute for Staff and Organizational Development on Teaching Excellence, Austin, TX. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 349 009)

Tallman, F. D. (1994). Satisfaction and completion in correspondence study: The influence of instructional and student-support services. *The American Journal of Distance Education, 8*(2), 43–55.

Thompson, M. M. (1998). Overview of distance learners in higher education. In C. Gibson (Ed.), *The distance learner in higher education* (pp. 9-24). Madison, WI: Atwood.

Willis, B. (1995). *Distance education: Strategies and tools*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications.

Melody Thompson, Associate Director, World Campus, 211 Mitchell Building, Penn State University, University Park, PA 16802 mmt2@psu.edu

Eunice N. Askov, Professor of Education, Professor-in-Charge, Adult Education, 411 Keller Building, Penn State University, University Park, PA 16802 ena1@psu.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

PERSPECTIVES ON A COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT APPROACH TO ADULT LITERACY EDUCATION IN NEW YORK STATE

Laurie Vasily
Virginia Steele

ABSTRACT

A survey of volunteer adult literacy program directors, board presidents, staff, and volunteers finds that the majority adhere strongly to a learner-centered individualized approach to literacy, while rejecting a deficit approach that sees literacy learners as dependent, defective, or unmotivated. When asked about how their literacy work relates to their community, the majority recognized a relationship between their literacy work and community development.

On questions about attitudes toward inter-organizational collaboration, the majority expressed the view that the benefits outweigh the barriers. The more positively a particular respondent felt about the benefits of inter-organizational collaboration, the more likely he or she was to hold a positive attitude toward a community development approach to adult literacy education. Strong, productive, satisfying collaborations may be one vehicle for building upon and extending the strengths of a learner-centered approach to include a focus on broader community goals.

BACKGROUND AND STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

It is estimated that about 20% of U.S. residents fail to read and write at levels sufficient to understand and use the information that is needed to function in our increasingly complex society (Kirsch, Jungeblut, Jenkins, & Kolstad, 1993). Adult literacy learners are likely to come from "culturally and economically defined subgroups of the population in which the education that is provided, the resources allocated to it, and its perceived role/function/value in the community is different from those of mainstream society" (Fowler & Scarborough, 1993 p. 3). In spite of the availability of universal schooling, "literacy remains inextricably tied to the social structure and reflects chronic differences among groups as well as the distribution of power in our society" (Stedman & Kaestle, 198, as cited in Fowler & Scarborough, 1993 p. 3).

In New York State, 52 affiliates of Literacy Volunteers of America currently serve approximately 11,000 adult literacy learners each year. By offering a learner-centered curriculum and methodology these community-based literacy programs are in a position to contribute to individual as well as community change.

Literacy Volunteers of America-New York State (LVA-NYS) supports the affiliates of LVA through advocacy, training, technical assistance, and research. Since 1992, LVA-NYS in cooperation with Cornell University through the Rural Literacy and Community Development Initiative has explored ways to combine literacy education and community development to meet adult literacy learner needs, build citizenship, and expand and enrich a sense of community. LVA-NYS incorporated literacy and community development themes into its Mission and Vision Statement and Strategic Plan in 1999: "LVA-NYS recognizes literacy as an integral element in the broader goals of economic opportunity and security, social justice and human dignity."

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

In a series of phone interviews conducted in 1998, several LVA affiliate directors from across the state mentioned inter-organizational collaboration as an essential avenue for their affiliates' work in their communities. To further explore some of the phone interview responses about collaboration and literacy education and community development and to assess current network views on these issues, a survey was designed to answer the following questions: "Do the staff, volunteers, and board members in the LVA network in New York view their work as linked to community development? Do attitudes toward inter-organizational collaboration impact the view of literacy as linked to community development?"

METHODOLOGY

A ten-page paper and pencil questionnaire with both Likert-scale and open-ended questions was mailed to each of the 52 affiliates in the LVA network in New York State. The sample included respondents whose roles were tutor, trainer, staff, board member, or affiliate director. Three hundred and five of the original 1,000 surveys were returned, which, after adjusting for undeliverable surveys, resulted in a 31% response rate. The resulting data were analyzed using factor and multiple regression analyses.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework that supported this research was rooted in adult literacy education and derived concepts from the field of community development and the study of collaboration. The fundamental assumption that guided this study was the idea that adult literacy education, when practiced as community development, can effectively serve both individuals and their communities.

Hayes and Snow (1989) broadly identify two approaches to literacy education: individual-based and community-based. The first emphasizes equipping individuals with specific reading, writing, or math skills. The goal is to help marginalized individuals respond to the needs of the economy and prepare for productive roles as workers in mainstream society. Additionally, Fingeret (1983) categorizes a deficit-based approach to adult literacy education as one where illiteracy is viewed as a negative, individual deficit. She notes that "adult basic educators continue to define their student population in terms of incompetence, inability, and illiteracy, even though this kind of orientation has been labeled a 'deficit' perspective" (Fingeret, 1983 p. 133). The literature characterizes "individualized" approaches broadly; they are assumed to divorce learners from their social contexts and communities, and to be deficit-based.

In contrast, the second approach views illiteracy within its sociocultural context (Hayes & Snow, 1989). This approach is referred to as the social change approach or community-based literacy. Gaber-Katz and Watson (1991) identify three components of these programs: learner-centeredness, critical literacy, and community building. Literacy educators in the U.S. have generally failed to acknowledge literacy as a social, cultural, and political phenomenon (Kazemek & Kazemek, 1992), but some have begun to explore an approach to literacy that is more contextualized, learner-centered, and community-based.

The importance of community-based literacy programs goes beyond their geographic location within the community. The literature points to a vision of community development as "a process of decision-making characterized by broad citizen involvement at the community level in order to improve local economic or social conditions" (Tucker & Napier, 1994, p. 80). Bhattacharyya (1991) maintains that a community development approach to adult literacy education strengthens individual and community capacity building through methods focused on principles of "felt-needs, self-help, and people's participation" (p. 86).

Community-based literacy programs often collaborate with other neighborhood services. Much of the literature concerning collaboration for adult literacy education is focused on the micro-level of interpersonal partnerships to assist individuals in fulfillment of their personal learning objectives. This study, however, focused on adult literacy programs' inter-organizational collaborations, deriving concepts from an inter-organizational, collaboration-focused special issue of *New Directions for Continuing Education* (Beder, 1984).

Themes of participation, learner-centeredness, capacity building, and working together to effect change run through these three bodies of literature. These themes provided the framework that supported this research study.

FINDINGS

The main purpose of this survey was to explore whether board members, staff, and volunteer tutors see a link between community development and literacy education. It also addressed their attitudes toward various approaches to literacy education and toward inter-organizational collaboration for adult literacy education. The main findings were:

- The prevailing approach to literacy education is neither a deficit-based approach nor a social change approach, but rather respondents view responding to individual learner needs as the primary goal of literacy education.
- A majority of respondents view their LVA literacy work as linked to community development.
- The perceived benefits of engaging in inter-organizational collaboration for literacy education outweigh the barriers.
- Respondents with positive attitudes toward collaboration also saw a strong link between their literacy work and community development.

APPROACHES TO LITERACY EDUCATION WITHIN THE LVA NETWORK IN NEW YORK

Fingeret's (1996) framework provided the basis for this survey's statements measuring approaches to literacy education. She characterizes those who hold a deficit-based approach as believing that literacy learners are inherently lazy or unmotivated, or that their lack of literacy skills necessarily indicates a lack of intelligence. For the purposes of this survey, statements such as the following measured attitudes toward this approach:

- Literate adults think education is more important than do adult literacy learners.
- Adult literacy learners are generally less intelligent than adults who read and write well.
- Literate adults have more social relationships than do adult literacy learners.

A majority (52%) of the respondents rejected these statements. Although the terms "individualized" and "deficit-based" are often used interchangeably in the literature on adult literacy approaches, respondents clearly saw a difference between them. An individualized, learner-centered approach to adult literacy education has been a successful part of LVA adult literacy education work throughout the organization's history. Indeed, on this survey a full 93% of the respondents viewed "responding to the learners' individual needs" as the primary goal of literacy education.

Fingeret (1996) maintains that some literacy programs integrate social critique into literacy education in order to engage in some form of social change. Literacy educators taking the social change approach believe that literacy education must transcend individualized, personal development goals and aim instead for broader, societal change. On this survey, statements such as the following measured attitudes toward a social change approach:

- The primary goal of literacy education is to effect social change.
- The primary goal of literacy education is to help individuals to participate more actively in their communities.
- Literacy education empowers learners to take action towards changing the societal injustices that affect them.
- Literacy education helps learners to develop skills to critique the world around them.

The LVA affiliate respondents held strongly ambivalent attitudes toward the social change approach. While the majority of respondents believed that literacy education does help learners to critique their worlds and to take action to change the injustices that affect them, they did not view social change as the central purpose of literacy education.

In the words of two respondents, literacy education should encourage learners to "participate more fully in society" or to "enable them to become more aware of the opportunities in the community and become more productive citizens." Thus, respondents did see an important community component of their literacy education work. However, the majority very clearly believed that social change or even community engagement should be secondary to the primary goal of learner-centeredness.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND ADULT LITERACY EDUCATION

Those who take a community development approach to adult literacy education see adult literacy education work as a means to effect community development ends. Seventy-one percent of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with a community development approach as measured through respondents' reactions to the following statements:

- Our affiliate's literacy education work positively affects social and economic conditions in the community.
- Literacy education programs are community development because literacy education programs and community development have the same goals.
- Community development takes place when literacy education programs collaborate with other community programs or organizations.

The respondents' answers to the survey's open-ended questions allow us more insight into the richness of opinion around the community development and literacy education link. Individual interpretations of what the community development approach looks like varied widely. Some reflected the view that literacy affects communities through the development of individuals' skills. Other respondents viewed the link from an organizational perspective, whereby there is a "big role in developing working relationships with other agencies to work for community development." Lastly, some respondents saw a weak link, or no link at all, stating that "this relationship needs to be strengthened, it's nearly non-existent now."

INTER-ORGANIZATIONAL COLLABORATION FOR ADULT LITERACY EDUCATION

Effective collaborations depend on the energy of the people involved, the complementary goals of the organizations, and sufficient resources. One respondent well captured the tension between the benefits of, and barriers against, inter-organizational collaboration when she described her affiliate's current collaborations as "sometimes very enthused; sometimes exasperated!"

In this survey, attitudes toward collaboration were measured across two dimensions: the benefits of and barriers against inter-organizational collaboration. The distribution of respondents' attitudes toward the benefits of collaboration tended to be positive—82% either agreed or agreed strongly with statements such as:

- Collaboration allows our affiliate to incorporate different aspects of learner's lives into the educational process.
- Our affiliate is effective because we work together with other community organizations.
- The exchange of ideas and information through collaboration is critical to the success of our affiliate.
- Collaboration allows our affiliate to help effect change in the community.

The respondents overwhelmingly rejected the barriers to collaboration, as 88% either disagreed or strongly disagreed with survey statement such as:

- Collaboration takes too much time, therefore it is not useful.
- Collaboration is to be avoided because personal politics detract from its effectiveness.
- The desire for collaboration is often a sign of organizational weakness.
- Our affiliate loses its autonomy when we collaborate.

This suggests that the barriers are not perceived as important deterrents to collaboration. From the distributions of responses across the benefits and barriers categories, we see that despite the challenges inherent in inter-organizational collaboration, these respondents viewed it as important and worthwhile.

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ATTITUDES

This study also examined whether or not there were correlations between attitudes toward a community development approach to literacy education and other attitudes. Indeed, when respondents held more positive attitudes toward a social change approach to literacy education or viewed positively the benefits of collaboration, they were more likely to view the community development approach to literacy education more positively. Conversely, when respondents held positive attitudes toward the deficit-based approach to literacy education or viewed the barriers to collaboration as significant, they tended to have less positive views toward the community development approach to literacy education.

IMPLICATIONS

Through this survey we have gained some valuable insights into the manner in which attitudes toward adult literacy education work and collaboration contribute to a community development approach to adult literacy education. These LVA survey respondents adhere to a strong learner-centered approach to literacy education work, while rejecting a deficit-based approach. They also recognize that there is a link between literacy education and community development. Based on these survey findings, inter-organizational collaboration appears to be an important means through which this link may be realized in practice. Our challenge is to support volunteer-based literacy organizations in their current collaborations and to encourage creative new collaborations.

INTER-ORGANIZATIONAL COLLABORATION: WORKING TOWARD COMMUNITY

Theoretically and practically, we need to better understand how collaboration for literacy education can be an effective means through which to foster community development. Sharing best practices is one step toward this understanding. By understanding the contextual, personal, and practical issues that support effective collaboration, we can begin to build a theory of what works in practice. Other practical steps include:

- Gathering and exchanging information at local, regional, state, and national meetings to identify current community development efforts.
- Enhancing opportunities for inter-organizational collaboration by tapping into existing volunteer, staff, and board member knowledge of the local communities.
- Researching national, state, and local level efforts to integrate community development and literacy education.
- Supporting local innovations that link literacy education and community development both financially and administratively.

EXTENDING THE STRENGTHS OF A LEARNER-CENTERED APPROACH

The individual nature of adult literacy education work stems from its fundamental purpose of aiding individuals in their acquisition of literacy skills. While some literacy educators may argue that the individual acquisition of literacy skills should be aimed toward a particular social change, individual learning is the base from which that change takes place. Community development, on the other hand, is concerned with the health, well being, support, or growth of groups of people who come together in some manner to form a community. The central focus is moving the group toward a desirable end.

These fundamental differences should not be ignored. However, the results of this survey offer hope that it is possible to link adult literacy education and community development in a manner that is respectful of individuals' needs while simultaneously promoting social and economic change that is the hallmark of effective community development. Further research exploring this relationship will *help us to understand how volunteer literacy organizations can continue to meet learner needs while fostering engaged citizenship and enriching communities.*

REFERENCES

Beder, H. (Ed.). (1984). *Realizing the potential of interorganizational cooperation.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. (New Directions for Continuing Education, No. 23)

Bhattacharyya, J. (1991). Toward a community development approach to literacy. *Journal of the Community Development Society, 22*(2), 84-98.

Fingeret, A. (1983). Social network: A new perspective on independence and illiterate adults. *Adult Education Quarterly, 33*, 133-146.

Fingeret, H. A. (1996). *Adult literacy education: Current and future directions. An update* (Information Series No. 355). Columbus, OH: Center on Education and Training for Employment. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 354 391)

Fowler, A. E., & Scarborough, H. S. (1993). *Should reading disabled adults be distinguished from other adults seeking literacy instruction?* (Report TR93-7). Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, National Center on Adult Literacy.

Gaber-Katz, E., & Watson, G. M. (1991). *The land that we dream of: A participatory study of community-based literacy.* Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Hayes, E. R., & Snow, B. R. (1989). The ends and means of adult literacy education. *Lifelong Learning, 12*(8), 12-18.

Kazemek, C., & Kazemek, F. (1992). Systems theory: A way of looking at adult literacy education. *Convergence, 25*(3), 5-15.

Kirsch, I. S., Jungeblut, A., Jenkins, L.., & Kolstad, A. (1993). *Adult literacy in America: A first look at the findings of the national adult literacy survey.* Washington DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, National Center for Education Statistics.

Tucker, M., & Napier, T. L. (1994). The diffusion task in community development. *Journal of the Community Development Society, 25*(1), 80-100.

Laurie Vasily, Department of Education, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY 14853

Virginia Steele, Literacy Volunteers-New York State, 120 West State Street, Ithaca, NY 14850

The authors would like to acknowledge The Carl and Lily Pforzheimer Foundation and the U.S. Department of Agriculture/Hatch for their financial support of the survey described in this paper. We also wish to thank Dr. Merrill Ewert for his support and guidance through the research process.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

THE DETERMINATION OF FACTORS AFFECTING USER ACCEPTANCE OF A COMPUTER-BASED TRAINING SUPPORT TOOL IN THE WORKPLACE

G. Dale Wagner
Daniele D. Flannery

INTRODUCTION

Human resource developers and adult educators are increasingly being challenged to meet just-in-time training needs. To enable "competent human performance" (doing what the job requires, when it is required) and measure the impact of training on that performance, employees must be able to access training on demand. The purpose of this research then is to identify and empirically test factors that may influence the user acceptance of computer-based training support systems. Specifically, this paper notes that user acceptance assumes employees will want to take an active role in the determination and management of their own training needs. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to test the concept of self-direction in learning as contributing or not contributing to employee use of a computer-based training support system.

THEORETCIAL FRAMEWORK

SELF-DIRECTION IN LEARNING

To understand the meaning of self-directed or autonomous learning, it is first necessary to analyze the concept of autonomy. The term autonomy literally means self-rule, independent from all exterior regulations and constraints. In everyday discourse, autonomy refers to one's ability to choose what has value or, as Chene (1983) writes, "to make choices in harmony with self-realization" (p. 39).

In Adult Education, autonomy becomes the central component for the understanding of adults as self-directed learners. Chene (1983) identifies three major elements of an autonomous learner: independence, the ability to make critical judgments or decisions, and the ability to articulate the norms and limits of a learning society. Candy (1991) adds to Chene's perception of the autonomous learner by characterizing autonomous people as those with a strong sense of personal values and beliefs. These values and beliefs provide them with a firm foundation for conceiving goals and plans, exercising freedom of choice, using rational reflection, having will power to follow through, and exercising self-restraint and self-discipline.

Several researchers believe self-direction is not simply an attribute people either have, or do not, but rather it is a quality which may be present in varying degrees (Candy, 1991). Since the appearance of Guglielmino's (1977) Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale, there have been numerous studies conducted based on the notion that self-direction is a measurable quality, distributed throughout the population (Brockett, 1985). From a practical standpoint, this means that educators may want to adapt their strategies to the appropriate levels of self-directedness that learners exhibit in various situations. Furthermore, educators may, at the request of the learner, try to help the learner to increase or improve his or her ability to be self-directing.

"Much of the research into personal autonomy has been based on the notion that it is a context-free disposition; once people 'become' autonomous, they will behave autonomously in whatever situation they find themselves" (Candy, 1991, p. 114). But, as Candy points out, there are two flaws with this line of reasoning. First, autonomy is not a product but is more akin to a process. This means that an individual does not "become" autonomous in the absolute sense. Instead the individual is able to think and act autonomously dependent upon the situation or circumstances at

---

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

the time. Second, although some adults display more self-assurance or clarity of purpose across a range of situations when compared to others, it is impossible to judge whether or not an individual is autonomous without identifying the context within which this autonomy will, or might, manifest itself.

After all, self-direction by its very nature is distinguished by its emphasis on the vagaries of human motivation and interest in conjunction with its concern for the needs of each individual learner (Garrison, l997). Yet most researchers continue to (a) allow individual differences to be obscured by research methods which emphasize similarities, (b) use research methods that usually ignore situational differences, (c) assume self-directed learning is a linear process, and (4) implicitly assume that external and publicly observable behaviors are the criteria by which autonomy is to be judged (Candy, 1990, 1991).

As a result, Candy (1991) is urging researchers to adopt an "interpreter research approach," an approach that allows for individual features rather than ignoring or denying their existence. Such a research orientation emphasizes individuality, acknowledges situational variability, takes into account the non-linearity and serendipitous nature of human affairs and gives due acceptance to the fact that people actively participate and contribute to the creation of the social world of which they are a part.

At the core of the interpretative orientation are the purposes, intentions, and frames of reference every adult learner brings to bear on each learning situation or circumstance. These three factors have the ability to influence everything from the individual's initial willingness to engage, to the type of help sought and resources used, to the outcomes that emerge from any learning encounter (Candy, 1990, 1991).

Researchers simply need to recognize that there is a crucial dichotomy in the meaning of self-direction. The distinction is between self-management, "the variable quality of being self-directing within one's field of constraints of free actions," and self-determination, "the variable quality of being self-directing to the extent that one is in charge of one's destiny" (Candy, 1991, p. 20). Although it would seem rational that self-determination would be the quality most advocated and desired, "it is arguably self-management which, in many cases, is articulated, elaborated, and attained" (Bagnall, 1987, p. 91).

In summary, the psychological aspect of autonomy or self-direction has two distinct dimensions, self-determination and self-management. Self-determination refers to the amount of control an individual feels when identifying his or her own education and training needs. Self-management refers to an individual's ability to manage and control his or her own training plan. Both aspects of self-direction are processes, dependent on situations or circumstances at a particular time (Candy, 1991; Garrison, 1997).

To understand situations and circumstances that could influence self-direction, literature from human resource development, adult education, instructional systems, psychology, human-computer interaction, computer-based training, business management, computer science, information systems, and organizational management was reviewed.

ADDITIONAL RELEVANT LITERATURE

The additional literature provided three topical areas to support this study: (1) Perceived Ease of Use and Usefulness; (2) Computer Anxiety, Individual Characteristics, and Attitudes towards Use; and (3) Organizational Characteristics.

Perceived ease of use and usefulness. Davis (1989) defines perceived usefulness as "the degree to which a person believes that using a particular system would enhance his or her job performance" and perceived ease of use as "the degree to which a person believes that using a particular system would be free of effort" (p. 320). Using these two definitions and a multiple studies approach, Davis refined and validated two six-item scales to measure perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use. With limited exceptions (Robey, 1979; DeSanctis, 1983), this is one of the first studies to empirically validate measurements that can be used to predict the user acceptance of technology. Moreover, this study validates Davis's (1986) technology acceptance model (TAM), an adaptation of Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action (TRA).

Computer anxiety, attitudes towards use, and individual characteristics. "Attitudes toward computers are thought to influence not only the acceptance of computers, but also future behaviors, such as using a computer as a professional tool" (Woodrow, 1991, p. 165). Attitudes indicate an individual's reaction to an object, such as a computer, on a like-dislike continuum (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975) whereas computer anxiety is the tendency of an individual to feel uneasy, apprehensive, or even fearful about the current or future use of computers (Raub, 1981).

Using a single study approach, Igbaria and Parasuraman (1989) developed and tested a path model of individual difference variables as antecedents of computer anxiety and attitudes toward microcomputers among managers. This is one of the few multivariate studies that empirically identified multivariate linkages of individual differences with computer anxiety and computer attitudes. Unlike the many bivariate studies that have been done, their study empirically supports the possible existence of multivariate linkages of individual differences with computer anxiety and computer attitudes among an adult population. These linkages support the belief that demographics, personality, and cognitive style affect computer anxiety which, in turn, affects attitudes toward computers (Igbaria, Pavri, & Huff, 1989).

Organizational characteristics. In a follow-up study, Igbaria (1993) sought to find empirical evidence to support the prediction made by Davis, Bagozzi, and Warshaw (1989) that perceived usefulness is influenced by organizational characteristics. In his study, Igbaria divided organizational characteristics into two attributes-information support and management support. Information support includes the presence of an information center staffed by professionals who provide recommendations and assistance to computer users when needed. Management support includes the support and encouragement by top management to use computers.

By using the Partial Least Squares analysis technique on data acquired from 519 managers from across 54 different companies, Igbaria (1993) found information support to have direct effects on perceived usefulness and attitudes toward use. He also found information support had both direct and indirect effects on behavioral intentions and perceived usage via computer anxiety and perceived usefulness. Management support was found only to have a direct effect on behavior intentions. In general, the findings from Igbaria's study strongly corroborate the importance of organizational characteristics in user acceptance studies.

RESEARCH METHODODLOGY

The study was conducted at a government agency's training institution in Maryland. Employees selected to participate in this study were required to have an active account for the Web-based training support system (TSS) and a minimal amount of experience using the tool. The TSS provides access to courses that can be taken on demand via computer-mediated instruction. Using the stratified sampling technique, 1020 people were invited to participate in the study. Four hundred forty-six respondents returned questionnaires.

INSTRUMENTATION

Self directed learning was measured in the following ways:

Self-Determination. This measure attempted to capture the prototype of the grounded and self-determined person by using two facets, contact and control of choice. A ten-item scale was developed for this study. For each item, respondents were asked to identify which of two statements felt more true using a scale ranging from 1 (only A feels true) to 5 (only B feels true).

Self-Management. This measure is used to define the quality of being self-directing within one's field of constraints on free actions. This ten-item scale adopted the same format as the self-determination scale discussed above and was also developed particularly for this research study. Items used to construct the scale were adopted from prior research (Guglielmino, 1977).

A questionnaire survey comprised of items taken from 10 separate subscales was developed to measure the context characteristics that might affect the user acceptance of the training support system (TSS). These subscales included Individual Characteristics, Browser Experience, Computer Training, Information and Management Support, Perceived Usefulness, Perceived Ease of Use, Computer Anxiety, Software Anxiety, Attitudes Toward Using Training Support Systems, and Behavioral Intentions.

DATA ANALYSIS

The statistical analysis method chosen for this study was multiple regression analysis. The stepwise selection method was used for controlling the entry and removal of independent variables from the regression models.

Several subtle differences were discovered within early regression models that suggested there might possibly be two subpopulations present within the data. There was also evidence that suggested three subscales-attitudes toward use, perceived ease of use, and software anxiety-all collected data that might have measured aspects of the same variable. Further analyses using the stepwise selection method strongly suggested that the civilians be grouped separately from the military personnel.

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

The respondents all held various positions across a wide range of functional areas in locations around the world. Of the 446 participants, 41% were civilians and 59% military personnel. Males outnumbered females by a ratio of 3:1. (These percentages are consistent with the population contained within the database at the time of this study: 35% civilians, 65% military and 76% male, 24% female.) Considerably more military respondents (25.8%) were requested to take courses using the TSS in comparison to the civilian respondents (13.7%). More military respondents (73.6%) than civilian respondents (33.4%) reported their intention to take computer based training courses available through the TSS to earn equivalent college credits.

The results from the multiple regression analysis indicated that the determinants selected to approximate the user acceptance of the TSS differed slightly between the civilian and military respondents. The most notable difference was that self-determination and self-management were not present in the military's structural model but were in the civilian's structural model. The civilian model indicates that as self-management increases, the user acceptance increases. The effect of self-determination on user acceptance, on the other hand, was mediated by attitudes toward use, perceived usefulness, and behavioral intentions. Furthermore, as self-determination increases, attitudes toward use decrease.

The results across both groups confirm the importance of individual and organizational characteristics in influencing perceived usefulness. The results found that perceived usefulness plays a very important role in mediating the relationships between attitudes toward use and management support, and behavioral intentions. Educational level and browser experience also had a direct relationship with behavioral intentions. Behavioral intentions had a direct effect on user acceptance.

In many cases, self-management and self-determination are articulated, elaborated, and attained across much of the civilian population. Civilians are continually encouraged to identify and become more responsible for meeting their own training needs. Incentives include fellowship opportunities, after-hours tuition assistance, and free graduate degree programs. There are also a wide variety of education and training opportunities for civilians who work in the Baltimore-Washington corridor at nearby colleges and universities. Most of the courses available through the TSS, on the other hand, are either "how-to" or prerequisite courses that were designed to focus on communication technologies, computer hardware and computer software. These courses were not meant to meet the educational and training needs of everyone. Therefore, the TSS becomes one of the many options available to civilians with high levels of self-determination.

Nearly 26% of the military respondents were asked to take courses using the TSS. Unlike the civilians, many of the military personnel are assigned outside the Baltimore-Washington area. Most do not have the option of attending a nearby college or university. Instead, they are forced to rely on the availability of self-paced courses. For this reason, the military community has embraced the TSS. No other system provides access to so many courses for free. At their convenience, whether at work or home, military personnel have access to the courses that they either want or are required to take. By doing so, they earn equivalent college credits, earn points for promotions, and/or learn skills they hope to use after they retire from the military.

SIGNIFICANCE TO THE FIELD OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT AND ADULT EDUCATION

In the necessity for HRD to provide just-in-time training, often computer-based, this research makes a major contribution by investigating factors that affect CBT. This study also contributes to a further understanding of adult learners and issues of autonomy and training. Second, the inclusion of self-determination and self-management in this study has helped to expand the understanding of autonomy, particularly the aspects of self-determination and self-management as it relates to training and adult education. Third, this empirical investigation is significant because this is the only known study of its kind that integrated two theoretical constructs from adult education - self-determination and self-management with the factors from information systems and management information systems. Fourth, this study highlighted the fact that adult education can provide meaning to other areas, such as information systems, management information systems, social psychology, and organizational behavior.

In summary, managers, designers, and practitioners need to become cognizant of the many determinants that have been found to influence and ultimately determine the behavioral intentions of people to use or not to use a new training support system. Future research is needed that will further address the importance of self-determination and self-management. It is hoped that this investigation will serve as a catalyst for further research in this area.

REFERENCES

Bagnall, R. G. (1987). Enhancing self-direction in adult education: A possible trap for enthusiasts. *Discourse: The Australian Journal of Educational Studies, 8*, 90-100.

Brockett, R. G. (1985). The relationship between self-directed learning readiness and life-satisfaction among older adults. *Adult Education Quarterly, 35*, 210-219.

Candy, P. C. (1990). The transition from learner-control to autodidaxy: More than meets the eye. In H. B. Long and Associates, *Advances in research and practice in self-directed learning* (pp. 9-46). Norman, OK: University of Oklahoma, Oklahoma Research Center for Continuing Professional and Higher Education.

Candy, P. C. (1991). *Self-direction for lifelong learning: A comprehensive guide to theory and practice.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Chene, A. (1983). The concept of autonomy in adult education: A philosophical discussion. *Adult Education Quarterly, 34*, 38-47.

Davis, F. D. (1986). *A technology acceptance model for empirically testing new end-user information systems: theory and results.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Sloan School of Management, Cambridge.

Davis, F. D. (1989). Perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, and user acceptance of information technology. *MIS Quarterly, 13*, 319-339.

Davis, F. D., Bagozzi, R. P., & Warshaw, P. R. (1989). User acceptance of computer technology: A comparison of two theoretical models. *Management Science, 35*, 982-1003.

DeSanctis, G. (1983). Expectancy theory as an explanation of voluntary use of a decision support system. *Psychological Reports, 52*, 247-260.

Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intentions and behavior: An introduction to theory and research.* Boston: Addison-Wesley.

Garrison, D. R. (l997). Self-Directed learning: Toward a comprehensive model. *Adult Education Quarterly, 48*, 18-33.

Guglielmino, L. M. (1977). *Development of the self-directed learning readiness scale* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia, 1977). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 38*, 6467A.

Igbaria, M. (1993). User acceptance of microcomputer technology: An empirical test. *Omega, 2*, 73-90.

Igbaria, M., & Parasuraman, S. (1989). A path analytic study of individual characteristics, computer anxiety and attitudes toward microcomputers. *Journal of Management, 15*, 373-388.

Igbaria, M., Pavri, F., & Huff, S. (1989). Microcomputer application: An empirical look at usage. *Information Management, 16*, 187-196.

Raub, A. C. (1981). *Correlates of computer anxiety in college students.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

Robey, D. (1979). User attitudes and management information systems use. *Academy of Management Journal, 22*, 527-538.

Woodrow, J. E. J. (1991). A comparison of four computer attitude scales. *Journal of Educational Computing Research, 7*, 165-187.

G. Dale Wagner, D.Ed, Department of Defense, 9800 Savage Road, Attn: I44, FANX 3, Fort Meade, MD 20755-6722. Tel: (410) 854-4743. g.wagner@radium.ncsc.mil

Daniele D. Flannery, D.Ed., Penn State-Harrisburg, 777 W. Harrisburg Pike, Middletown, PA 17057. Tel: (717) 948-6219. ddf3@psu.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

ASSESSING AND TRANSFORMING LEARNING IN ADULT STUDENTS IN TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS USING THE PROCESS OF CONCEPT MAPPING

Drucilla Weirauch

ABSTRACT

This research involved on non-traditional learners (age 25 and older) who are enrolled in a teacher education program that leads to a BS in elementary education and recommendation for PA certification K-6. All students are currently employed as paraprofessionals and teacher aides in an urban school district. To pre-assess each student's knowledge, skills, attitudes and values about what constitutes effective teaching, students were asked to create a concept map when they were first admitted to the program. After one year, the students were asked again to create another concept map. Each student was interviewed and asked to discuss the similarities and differences between the two and reasons for inclusion of the factors and concepts. The purpose of the interview was to encourage the students to think about their assumptions about effective teaching, focus on their own practice, and dialogue about the changes (if any) they are experiencing in their views as they move through this rigorous teacher education program. Results were analyzed using the four Domains identified in Charlotte Danielson's (1996) Framework for Teaching: Planning and Preparation, Classroom Environment, Instruction, and Professional Responsibilities and the sub-elements of each. The results indicate that after one year, all of the students have included more of the domains and identified more of the elements inherent to each. Classroom Environment was the most represented domain; Professional Responsibility the least, due ostensibly to the students' current status and roles as paraprofessionals. The interview process was effective in helping them to reflect about their own practice, their new knowledge, and to articulate the "why?" A third concept mapping exercise will occur in Fall 2000; a fourth and final one at the end of their student teaching.

INTRODUCTION

Teacher education programs in colleges and universities are faced with the singular challenge of fostering antithetical role change as an individual moves from the role of student to that of teacher. In addition to course work, colleges and universities provide transitional experiences in the field; however, unless there are methods and opportunities to foster awareness of the redefinition of role, assumptions, and behaviors, the individual may experience difficulty in developing as a teacher, in achieving a "metanoia" (Senge, 1990) or mind-shift about themselves as professionals. Reflective practice has been recognized for some time now as a position of importance in the professions, including education (Schon, 1983) especially in terms of school reform (Langer & Colton, 1994). Reflection is essential so that teachers will think not only about their practice, but also how they think, and to make sense of their own experiences (Lee & Barnett, 1994). As they develop into teachers, individuals must create a conscious awareness of self, and construct new meaning perspectives (Mezirow, 1990). However, teacher development programs may not always provide pre-service teachers with the tools and venues they need to bring about change in the assumptions and practice. Frequently, university courses will ask students to journal or enact an action research practice to foster critical reflection. While these are valuable for the duration of the course, they may not reflect overall growth or provide a systematic opportunity for the student to look at himself or herself holistically over the course of several years.

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

Studies of teachers' reflection have disclosed that it is a powerful influence on teaching (Lee & Barnett, 1994). Self-assessment and self-analysis are critical to reflective teaching. But, where can it start with pre-service teachers? It must begin with the examination and clarification of one's own beliefs. Senge (1990) calls this, "Mental Models," where an individual scrutinizes, exposes, and challenges those, "deeply ingrained assumptions, generalizations, or even pictures that influence how we understand the world and how we take action" (p. 8). But before the scrutiny and challenge can occur, the individual must first establish what currently exists. Patricia VanLeuvan (1997) used concept maps to investigate pre-service teachers' beliefs about teacher effectiveness and their changes as they progressed through student teaching. This study extracted the idea of concept mapping as a tool to measure growth and aid in student teaching supervison and reformulated it as long-term professional growth assessment and a venue to transform learning for students enrolled in a teacher education program. This study differs from VanLeuvan's in three ways. VanLeuvan's dealt primarily with traditionally aged students, covered growth only from the beginning to the end of student teaching, and coded and analyzed it in terms of three categories. This study considered non-traditionally aged students who are presently employed as para-professionals, which has implications for unlearning in order to re-learn professional roles, a more complex process. The research is a comprehensive look at the students, from their admission to the program (as sophomores), to junior status (this current research), and will continue to 2000 as they enter student teaching and finally complete student teaching. It analyzes their growth in terms of four domains of effective practice. This report is a one-year check point of their growth.

The report will describe the methodology and process based on the VanLeuvan (1997) model, discuss the results as interpreted using the Danielson (1996) Framework for Effective Teaching, and suggest implications for future study and use.

METHODOLOGY

A concept map is a schematic diagram that illustrates one's understanding of a term, its components, supporting components and the relative value of each. They are holistic, spatial, and hierarchical representations of the relationships and interrelationships among essential concepts (Deshler, 1990). The concept map activity was designed for pre-service teachers to identify their beliefs about the components of effective teaching. Moreover, it was used to foster critical reflection in the students, to help them break from what Brookfield (1995) calls "the vicious cycle of innocence and blame" (p. 1) in teaching by heightening awareness of their own assumptions in a premap (baseline), and asking that they critically reflect on their revised assumptions in a midmap (checkpoint, and the focus of this study), and postmap process.

The purposive study sample consisted of ten students, all non-traditionally aged and employed as para-professionals in an urban school district. Following the VanLeuvan (1997) procedures, the researcher asked the students to write out factors or concepts involved in Effective Teaching. The students next wrote these on small pieces of paper and were asked to group these, and name the groups if appropriate. When the groups were organized, the students then were asked to rank them, with those most important a "1" and the next a "2," etc. With the words Effective Teaching in the middle of an 8 1/2 by 11 paper, the students wrote the group items, those with a "1" closest to the title. This process occurred in February 1999, shortly after the students had been admitted to a teacher education program. The exact process was repeated in December 1999, after the students had completed a minimum of 21 credits in professional studies.

After the second concept map was completed, each student participated in a 20-minute semi-structured interview. They were asked to consider the following: "List the components of effective teaching that you feel are more important," "What can you tell me about your first concept map? Second?", "What similarities do you see between the two maps? Differences?" Why did you make these changes?" and "Do you feel that positive growth has taken place between the first and second maps? Why?"

To assess growth and change, the researcher then compared both maps, looking for key concepts and elements based on Charlotte Danielson's (1996) Framework for Effective Teaching. Within the four domains of Planning & Preparation, Classroom Environment, Instruction, and Professional

Responsibilities, exist specific elements. For example, there are fourteen elements integral to Planning & Preparation. They include knowledge of content, of prerequisite relationships, of content-related pedagogy, of characteristics of age groups, of students' varied approaches to learning, of students' skills and knowledge, of students' interests and cultural heritage, learning activities, instructional materials and resources, instructional groups, lesson and unit structure, congruence with instructional goals, criteria and standards, assessment for planning. The researcher compared and contrasted the number of represented domains and elements for each student, looking for exact matches or synonymous matches.

The interview provided an opportunity to further discuss each map, provide clarity for meaning, and to expand on the paper map. Most importantly, the interview was chosen as an important part of the methodology to have the students begin to articulate their feelings and beliefs about effective teaching. Research provided by Lee and Barnett (1994) provided guidance for preparing and asking questions and a model for follow-up questions that were designed for specific consequences and reactions, including: using one's own words, encouraging more detail, recognizing possible results of an event, providing rationale, and acknowledging how experiences influences attitudes, assumptions, and behaviors. The interview, clearly, is a method that induces individuals to begin to think about what they believe and why they do. Learner-empowerment is an articulated goal of the concept-mapping activity, as it is a prerequisite to critical reflection and transformative learning (Cranton, 1994). The interview validated ideas, and served to induce deeper analysis of assumptions, and reasons for change. Although the interview was optional, all students participated.

RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

This study used the concept mapping process as a means to measure changes in pre-service teachers' thinking about the elements of effective teaching. The process itself promotes critical thought. Results indicate, in general, that after one year the students have, indeed, developed a deeper understanding of what constitutes effective teaching; however, there is room for continual growth.

In general, the second concept maps were better organized and much more detailed. This may have been due simply to the fact that after the first map, the students were more comfortable with the process, and therefore understood the procedure better. Still, it was apparent that in the second map, several of the Domains were emerging as central concepts, with sub-categories. A solar system ("Teaching Effectiveness"), planetary (domains), lunar (elements) system of hierarchy was developing, as opposed to the baselines' more scattered elements with little indication of hierarchy and relationships. Specifically, the domains of Planning and Preparation, Classroom Environment, and Instruction (Communication Skills) emerged in several of the maps, with appropriate sub-elements. However, others failed to identify any of the key domains. Classroom Environment and Planning and Preparation clearly had the most frequent listing of elements; Instruction had ample representation, but was most often defined as "communication skills;" Professional Responsibilities was the least represented domain in both the first and second mappings. A more comprehensive discussion of each of the domains follows.

For Planning and Preparation, in the first map the students listed only five (synonyms were accepted) of the fourteen elements in Danielson's (1996) Framework. They included in most to least order: knowledge of content, lesson structure and design, knowledge of students' skills and abilities, materials and resources, and congruence to instructional goals (state and district standards). The second map included these five and added: knowledge of students' varied approaches to learning (Howard Gardner was specifically mentioned), learning activities, assessment, knowledge of pre-requisite relations, knowledge of students' interests and cultural identity. In the interviews, students mentioned that three courses had prepared them with an awareness of lesson design, including goals, students' ability and existing knowledge, assessment and the need to plan for cultural diversity.

The Classroom Environment Domain received the most listings of any; however many of the references were tied to Danielson's "Teacher interaction with students." For example, the students' specific affective words of "respect, caring, courtesy, tolerance, open-mindedness, with-it-ness" were grouped within this category. The affect of the Classroom Environment played a major role in this domain in both the first and second mappings. In the first map, students listed terms that represented only three of Danielson's twelve elements: teaching interaction with students, response to student misbehavior, monitoring student behavior. In the second mapping, students included these three and added three more, including accessibility to learning and use of physical resources, safety and arrangement of furniture, parental and volunteer support.

Students showed significant growth in their valuing the importance of the elements within the Instruction domain. In the first concept map, infrequent mention was made to these elements with only four of Danielson's fifteen included oral and written directions, quality of questions, lesson adjustment flexibility), and instructional materials and resources. The generic "communication skills" was ubiquitous. In the second map, there was far more frequent mention of the elements of Instruction, and they were more clearly defined. Added to the four from the first mapping were: discussion techniques, grouping of students, activities and assignments. An example of the detail was the listing of Bloom's Taxonomy as a sub-category of Questions. Clearly, the students are becoming more aware of the complexity of Instruction, beyond "communication skills." In this domain, in both maps affective elements were also included: "patience, enthusiasm, flexibility." These are not listed by Danielson, but obviously are important elements of instruction. Perhaps Danielson's Framework should include more of the affective elements of teaching effectiveness.

The final Domain, Professional Responsibility, was by far the weakest in both the first and second mapping. In Map One, only generic reference was made to it, with "Professional Development" suggested by two students and "Willingness to Learn" and "Commitment" by one each. The interview clarified that these terms aligned with Danielson's enhancement of content knowledge and pedagogical skills and with service to the profession. In Map Two, there were several additional references: Advocacy and Service to the students, as represented by such offerings as "proactive, ethics, dedication and commitment to students." In addition, students listed "self-evaluation" as an element of effective teaching. This is a glaring omission in Danielson's Framework, and a component that is stressed by this university which works to foster critical reflection in pre-service teachers as a lifelong skill.

In the interview, students were asked to specifically interpret their premap and midmap. The interview served two purposes. First, it was used to clarify the meaning of terms they used and the structure of the map. Secondly, because the purpose of this project is not only to collect data on the students' growth as teachers, but also to foster that growth through careful consideration of personal core assumptions (Brookfield, 1995), the process and the interview provided a means of critical conversation and exploration of rationale. Simple questions were asked: What are the components you think are most important to effective teaching? What can you tell me about your first concept map? The second? What similarities do you see between the two? What differences? Why did you make these changes? Do you feel any positive growth between the first and second? However, though the questions were simple, they provided for a rich dialogue of acknowledged assumptions and revised assumptions, as the students began to recognize and value more components of effective teaching and elevate the importance of some. It promotes personal development of theories of practice.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The concept maps contained valuable information about the pre-service teachers' conceptions of effective teaching and their growth over the course of a year. For the advisor, they provide a resource for understanding each student's holistic views of teaching and the changes the students are going through in the journey from student to teacher. Some maps represented only one aspect of teaching; clearly the program must focus on the other three domains to ensure that the students are receiving a comprehensive view of the profession. For example, the paucity of references to Professional Responsibility indicates that future courses and seminars should give this domain higher visibility. More important than the assessment of growth and the needs assessment is the opportunity this process gives for transformative learning to occur. This is important in teacher education programs where students must be critically aware not only of themselves, but also of the social domain of education under which they were formed, and the one in which they are employed. Furthermore, developing critical reflection is a skill that these pre-service teachers will continue to hone and use to imporve their life-long practice. Cranton (1994) has identified numerous strategies to promote transformative learning by empowering the learner. The concept mapping exercise and the follow-up interview provide salient conditions to for this to happen. The process raises awareness of assumptions and beliefs and provides support by the faculty member relinquishing power, providing equal participation for rational discourse, encouraging decision-making, setting the stage for and stimulating critical self-reflection. It provides a viable, valuable, tangible venue to help the students construe, validate, and reformulate their experiences through critical self-reflection (Cranton, 1994).

This research is only half over. One year from now, prior to student teaching, the students will again create a concept map and engage in an interview. Then at the end of student teaching, the process will again occur. In the interim, courses and seminars will be designed to provide a comprehensive view of teaching effective and excellence.

Danielson's Framework provides a valuable resource; however, it is not inclusive. Additional components of teaching effectiveness will be added and promoted as identified by the College of Education and the Department of Professional Studies in Education.

Though this research was used on adults in a teacher education program, it will also be used with other students who are not necessarily non-traditionally aged. With one group of students, a first map has already been created. The process has been suggested to another program which focuses on preparation for working in urban schools. This will be valuable as many of the students have preconceived ideas about the nature of urban children and schools. This concept map will clearly help to assess changes in their assumptions and promote that change.

REFERENCES

Brookfield, S. D. (1995). *Becoming a critically reflective teacher.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Cranton, P. (1994). *Understanding and promoting transformative learning: A guide for educators of adults.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Danielson, C. (1996). *Enhancing professional practice: A framework for teaching.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Deshler, D. (1990). Conceptual mapping: Drawing charts of the mind. In J. Mezirow & Associates, *Fostering critical reflection in adulthood: A guide to transformative and emancipatory learning* (pp. 336-353). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Langer, G. M., & Colton, A. B. (1994). Reflective decision-making: The cornerstone of school reform. *Journal of Staff Development, 15*(1), 2-7.

Lee, G. V., & Barnett, B. G. (1994). Using reflective questions to promote collaborative dialogue. *Journal of Staff Development, 15*(1), 16-21.

Mezirow, J., & Associates. (1990). *Fostering critical reflection in adulthood: A guide to transformative and emancipatory learning.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schon, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner.* New York: Basic Books.

Senge, P. M. (1990). *The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization.* New York: Doubleday.

VanLeuvan, P. (1997). Using concept maps of effective teaching as a tool in supervision. *Journal of Research and Development in Education, 30,* 261-277.

Drucilla Weirauch, Director, Urban Scholars' Institute, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, Department of Professional Studies in Education, 303 Davis Hall, Indiana, PA 15705.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

DO WE PRACTICE WHAT WE PREACH? AN EXAMINATION OF THE PHILOSOPHICAL ORIENTATION AND PRACTICE OF ADULT EDUCATORS WHO DELIVER WEB-BASED INSTRUCTION

Saundra Wall Williams

ABSTRACT

This study examined the philosophical orientation of adult educators who deliver web-based instruction in order to determine if these beliefs are consistent with their practice in the context of a web-based instructional environment.

INTRODUCTION

The expansion of web-based instruction in all areas of adult education has made it clear that it is time for research to expand to the same areas as in face-to-face instruction. One such area is that of philosophical orientation – the basis of why adult educators do what they do. Many efforts have been made to derive some philosophical guidance for adult educators (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982; Elias & Merriam, 1995; Zinn, 1998). In addition, there were a number of scholars (Houle, Skinner, Lindeman, Knowles, and Freire) who either developed or advocated a particular philosophical model. An adult educator's philosophical orientation will guide them in their educational practice and professional behavior. Therefore, one's philosophy of adult education should define the relationship between the practice and principles used in conducting educational activities with adults, regardless of whether the activity is face to face or by technological means. Hence, a philosophical orientation should serve as a stepping stone to ethical practice, personal and professional behavior in adult education.

An appropriate philosophical orientation must guide any educational encounter (Galbraith, 1991). However, will this orientation be consistent in a web-based instructional environment as it is in the traditional face-to-face environment? Similarly, do we as adult educators practice what we preach when we are in a web-based instructional environment or does the mode of delivery (in this case technology) seem to alter the adult educator's philosophical orientation? The deeper question being asked is this: Are our core beliefs about adult education driven by the content or the context of the instructional environment?

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Philosophical orientation and foundation of adult education and web-based instruction were the primary topics included in the literature review for this study. These topics provided the conceptual framework for the design of the study and an understanding for interpreting the data. The philosophical orientation and foundation of adult education provided the context of the study. Numerous authors (Apps, 1985; Elias & Merriam, 1995; McKenzie, 1985; Zinn 1998) have made contributions to this subject. Elias and Merriam (1995) provided a comprehensive overview of the dominant philosophies of adult education. They categorized them as Liberal Adult Education, Progressive Adult Education, Behaviorist Adult Education, Humanistic Adult Education, and Radical Adult Education. The concepts which make up these core beliefs of adult education, allow adult educators to reflect critically on their professional practice and how their philosophy influences their practice.

In order to determine the degree of adherence to a particular philosophy, Zinn's (1999) Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory (PAEI) explicitly examines the philosophical orientation relative to adult education practice, in particular the theoretical and philosophical positions analyzed by Elias and Merriam (1995). This instrument deals with the five philosophies and attempts to provide adult educators a means of clarifying their personal philosophy by measuring their degree of congruence with each of the five philosophies. The behavior and practice determined by this instrument can indicate a theory-philosophy-practice linkage in an adult education practice.

The literature surrounding web-based instruction and design from the perspective of philosophy and beliefs was also reviewed. Although several studies have been published on face-to-face instruction and adult education philosophy, no research has been completed on the topic of adherence to a philosophical orientation when teaching in a web-based environment.

RESEARCH DESIGN

"An awareness of discrepancies between espoused theories (or values, beliefs, philosophy) and theories-in-use (or beliefs, values, philosophy as evidenced by behavior) may prompt an examination of both what one says one values, and what one actually does" (Zinn, 1998, p. 42). As part of a larger study concerning instructional factors that influence web-based instruction, this current study was prompted to examine whether or not the core beliefs about adult education from the perspective of instructional methods are consistent and concrete or are they contextual. By identifying philosophy and examining current practice, determination can be made as to whether or not adult education practice in a web-based environment is consistent with philosophical beliefs, values, and practice in traditional learning environments. In addition, adult educators will be able to critically reflect on their web-based practice and how it is influenced. Therefore, this study was significant because it addressed one of the numerous theory and practice issues which influences how adult educators design web-based instruction.

The purpose of this study was to examine the philosophical orientation of adult educators who deliver web-based instruction and to determine if these beliefs are consistent with their practice in the context of a web-based teaching environment. This relationship of web-based course design and the philosophical orientation of the adult educator has not been addressed. As a result, because very little literature links philosophical orientation and actual practice, a qualitative and quantitative approach was taken with this study. With the combination of these approaches the researcher sought to gain an understanding of any potential relationships between context and content in a Web-based teaching environment.

These research questions reported on here are a part of a larger current study on teaching and learning in web-based environments.

1. What are the philosophical orientations of adult educators who design and deliver web-based courses for adult learners?
2. Does the mode of delivery alter the adult educator's philosophical orientation?
3. Do the instructional methods used in web-based instruction reflect a particular philosophical orientation?
4. Do the instructional methods used in web-based courses reflect the identified philosophical orientation of the adult educator?

This research is ongoing and thus far there have been five adult educators as participants. The adult educators who have participated thus far are from the fields of human resource development, higher education (colleges, universities, community colleges), and public/private adult education organizations. Criteria for the selection of these adult educators were (a) be adult educators who teach in an adult education organization, (b) have designed (determined content/instructional methods/objectives) for at least one web-based course, (c) are responsible for the evaluation of students participating in the web-based course.

The methodological technique deemed most appropriate to collect and analyze data concerning the philosophical orientation was a questionnaire called the PAEI developed by Zinn (1999). The PAEI is a self-assessment tool designed to provide information that helps the adult educator identify a personal philosophy of adult education. Additionally, it helps the adult educator reflect on personal beliefs and values relevant to his or her work in adult education. The PAEI (originally designed in 1983) helps the adult educator identify key teaching methods, people, practices, and programs that are representative of his or her philosophy of adult education (Zinn, 1998).

The researcher also requested from the adult educator the URL (uniform resource locator) in order to examine the instructional methods used in the web-based courses of the adult educators who completed the PAEI. The URL was necessary in order for the researcher to obtain access to the actual web-based course. By examining the actual web-based course, the researcher was able to determine the adult educator's adherence to their identified philosophy when teaching in a web-based environment.

The technique used to analyze the web-based courses was document review with the specialized approach of content analysis. Content analysis is considered a "data collection technique and a an analytic strategy which entails the systematic examination of forms of communication to document patterns objectively" (Marshall & Rossman, 1995, p. 85). In this research, electronic document analysis was used to examine each of the web-based courses. The researcher considered conducting interviews on instructional methods used in course design; however, "document analysis provides a behind-the-scenes look at the program that may not be directly observable and about which the interviewer might not ask appropriate questions without the leads provided through the documents" (Patton, 1990, p. 245).

As a part of the PAEI, Zinn (1999) developed a summary matrix of the five philosophies of adult education. The content of this summary describes the purpose, learner(s), teacher role, concepts and key words, instructional methods, and people and practices for each of the five philosophies. For the purpose of this current study only the instructional methods are pertinent and are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1
Summary of Instructional Methods for the Five Philosophies of Adult Education

Adult Education Philosophy	Related Instructional Methods
Liberal Adult Education	Lecture; reading and critical analysis; question and answer; instructor-led discussion; individual study; essay testing; "bell curve grading"
Behavioral Adult Education	Computer-based instruction; lock-step curriculum; technical/skill training; demonstration and practice; standardized and criterion-referenced testing
Progressive Adult Education	Projects; scientific or experimental method; simulations; group investigation; cooperative learning; portfolios; pass/fail grading
Humanistic Adult Education	Experiential learning; discovery learning; open discussion; individual projects; collaborative learning; independent study; self-assessment
Radical Adult Education	Critical theory; feminist theory; critical discussion and reflection; problem posing; analysis of media output; social action theater

The purpose of this study was accomplished by examining the five web-based courses identified by the adult educators who designed them. The focus of the web-based course examination was on the instructional methods used to accomplish course objectives.

RESEARCH RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data from each of the PAEIs was scored and interpreted using the scoring matrix developed by Zinn (1999). Interpretation of the data yielded a dominant (highest score) and a secondary (second highest score) philosophical orientation. After the philosophical orientation was identified, each of the web-based courses from the adult educators was examined. Because the instructional methods are closely aligned with particular philosophies of adult education (Zinn, 1999), each web-based course was examined for the use of the instructional methods related to a particular philosophy as shown in Table 1.

Each web-based course was analyzed by first examining the session objectives. Objectives for each session were given in each of the web-based courses. After the objective was identified, the instructional method used to accomplish the objective was identified. This process was done for each objective in every lesson in the web-based course. Table 2 shows a summary of the actual practice (instructional methods used) of each adult educator who participated in the study in addition to the associated philosophy of the instructional method.

Table 2
Actual Practice of Adult Educators Who Deliver Web-based Instruction

Adult Educator	Dominant/Secondary Philosophical Orientation Identified by PAEI	Instructional Methods Present in Web-based Instruction (associated philosophy)
1	Behavioral/Liberal	Reading and analysis (liberal) Individual study (liberal) Individual projects (humanistic)
2	Behavioral/Progressive	Lecture (written lecture notes) (liberal) Discussion (online) (liberal) Reading and analysis (liberal) Individual projects (humanistic) Question and answer (online) (liberal) Individual study (liberal)
3	Progressive/Humanistic	Discussion (online) (liberal) Reading and analysis (liberal) Individual projects (humanistic) Question and answer (online) (liberal) Individual study (liberal)
4	Behavioral/Progressive	Lecture (written lecture notes) (liberal) Individual study
5	Behavioral /Humanistic	Lecture (written lecture notes) (liberal) Discussion (online) (liberal) Reading and analysis (liberal) Individual projects (liberal) Question and answer (online) (liberal)

After completing this component of the study, the researcher could not definitely conclude that methods of delivery alter the adult educator's adherence to the instructional methods of his or her identified philosophical orientation. There are suggestions that the method in which adult educators deliver instruction, may determine the methods used in the instruction. Additionally, the results suggest that the mode of delivery may alter the adult educator's philosophical orientation. However, these conclusions need to be verified in a larger study.

The results obtained during this study suggest that those adult educators who design web-based instruction have as their foundational (dominant) orientation the behaviorist philosophy of adult education. Other orientations were identified by the PAEI; however, the behaviorist philosophy was most salient. The behavioral adult education philosophy focuses on step-by-step instructional methods (Table 1) where one skill must be mastered before learning of another skill is started. However, when the web-based courses of these adult educators was examined, discrepancies were identified between the actual instructional methods used in their web-based courses and the methods that are consistent with their identified philosophical orientation. This result yields further evidence that the instructional methods used by the adult educator is dependent on how the instruction is delivered to the learner and not the philosophical orientation of the adult educator. Hence, the method of delivery may altar the instructional methods relative to an adult educators philosophical orientation.

The results of this study also suggest that the instructional methods used in web-based instruction lean heavily toward the liberal philosophy of adult education. Table 2 shows that the instructional methods used most in the web-based courses reflect the liberal philosophy with some methods also reflecting the humanistic philosophy. Based on these findings, it is clear that adult educator's philosophical orientation is not reflected in the instructional methods used when designing a web-based course. However, a larger study could make this conclusion generalizable.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORY, PRACTICE AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Not only does this research hold significance for adult education, but it is important for distance education as well, particularly the design and development of web-based courses. This research and future research in this area, adds valuable theoretical basis to the literature on philosophical orientations to designing courses for a web-based environment. Based on the results of this study, there are implications for adult education theory, practice, and future research.

IMPLICATIONS FOR ADULT EDUCATION THEORY AND PRACTICE

The adult educator's philosophical orientation, whether articulated or not, should manifest itself in the instructional methods used when designing and delivering instruction (Elias & Merriam, 1995). However, this research suggests that this may not be true when technology is introduced as the mode of instructional delivery. This study suggests that although philosophy defines the adult educator's practice, other factors can alter this philosophy. Hence, as technology is changing the way adult educators teach, it is also changing the way in which adult educators design courses to meet course objectives. The activities of adult educators may be different than the theories that are the foundation of our practice. Therefore, it is not the philosophical orientation alone that defines the adult educator, but also the practice of the adult educator (Colin, 1992).

Web-based instruction may have re-emerged the liberal philosophy of adult education. The liberal approach to adult education was often dismissed as outdated because it relied so heavily on non-interactive instructional methods (Zinn, 1999). However, this study suggests that in designing web-based instruction, the instructional methods that characterize the liberal philosophy should be reevaluated. This re-emergence of this philosophy suggests that adult educators must assess their current proficiency level in these instructional methods. For example, professional development may be necessary in order to "lecture" on the web. As implementing face-to-face instructional methods requires certain skills, professional development may be necessary in order to effectively use these same skills in a web-based environment.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study was designed as an introductory exploration of adult educators philosophical orientation and their actual practice. The findings of this study suggest certain conclusions about the orientation and actual practice of the adult educator in the design of web-based courses. However, these findings also indicate issues that should be directed to future research. First further analysis into adult educator beliefs and values can be explored by examining further the theory-practice relationship. Questions to be answered in this area are:

1. What an adult educator believes should be reflected in his or her practice. What does it mean when the adult educator does not practice his or her philosophy?
2. The core beliefs of adult educators should remain consistent regardless of the instructional environment. If these core beliefs change, were they really core beliefs?

Another issue that requires further exploration is the element of technology and what it adds to the elements of teaching (instructional methods, learners, teaching beliefs). Potential questions in this area are:

1. What is the value of technology in a technologically enhanced learning environment?
2. What is the value of philosophy in a technology-enhanced teaching environment?

In sum, this research shows that theory implies adherence to a particular philosophy, but practice in a web-based instructional environment implies adult educators may actually do something different. So the results of this study suggest that adult educators who design and deliver web-based courses may not practice what they preach.

REFERENCES

Apps, J. (1985). *Improving practice in continuing education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Colin, III, S. A. J. (1992). History and philosophy of adult education. Unpublished lecture.

Darkenwald, G. G., & Merriam, S B. (1982). *Adult education: Foundations of practice*. New York: Harper & Row.

Elias, J. L., & Merriam, S. B. (1995). *Philosophical foundations of adult education* (2nd ed.). Malabar, FL: Krieger.

Galbraith, M. W. (1991). The adult learning transactional process. In M. W. Galbraith (Ed.), *Facilitating adult learning: A transactional process* (pp. 1-32). Malabar, FL: Krieger.

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. (1995). *Designing qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

McKenzie, L. (1985). Philosophical orientation of adult educators. *Lifelong Learning: An Omnibus of Research and Practice, 9*(1), 18 – 20.

Patton, M. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Zinn, L. (1998). Identifying your philosophical orientation. In M. W. Galbraith (Ed.), *Adult learning methods* (2nd ed., pp. 37-42). Malabar, FL: Krieger.

Zinn, L. (1999). *Philosophy of adult education inventory* (Rev. ed.). Boulder, CO: Lifelong Learning Options.

Saundra Wall Williams, Ed. D., Assistant Professor, Adult and Community College Education,
North Carolina State University, 310 Poe Hall Box 7801 Raleigh, NC 27695-7801.
Saundra_Williams@ncsu.edu or wmscorp@prodigy.net

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

PLACE, POWER, AND IDENTITY IN CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

Arthur L. Wilson

ABSTRACT

As frequently pointed out, adult educators for too long have attempted to define themselves professionally as technicians of educational process. I use this paper to argue for a specific politicalness to our practice. If theory is to be plausible, strategic, and morally grounded (Forester, 1989), then we must work to make clear the politics that enshroud our technical expertise. In this paper I draw upon the "new geography" to analyze the political consequences of continuing education practice. The central question this study asks is how people invest places with power and how they use that power. The practical relevance is to consider how we might as adult educators rethink our roles in shaping professionals' power relations and identity in society by highlighting the political demands of program planning. Elsewhere I have argued for continuing educators, in the face of increasing power disparities among their constituencies, to take specific advocacy roles rather than present themselves as technical facilitators. Here I expand that set of responsibilities with a sense of how our work as continuing educators directly shapes relationships of place, power, and identity.

INTRODUCTION

Adult educators should be increasingly concerned to understand the political nature of their practice. In the process of constructing our professional identity as educators, however, we have tended historically to imagine and purvey our practice in technical proficiency terms. For example, we almost always theoretically depict and prescribe adult education program planning as a procedural process devoid of political and ethical challenges or consequences (Wilson & Cervero, 1997). In our professional wishful thinking, we assert that processes of "rationality" will somehow escape, transcend, or merely override Machiavellian realities. Practically, of course, most of us know this is foolish. This is no less true in the planning literature of continuing professional education where there are only occasional acknowledgements of the complex political demands of practice (Cervero, 1998).

In this study I analyze the production of a continuing professional education program in which I was a significant participant. In previous work (Cervero & Wilson, 1994, 1998) I have looked at how planners negotiate power and interests. Here I look at the intersection between where continuing education happens and what effects that location has. The key question I take on is how to understand the relationships among place, power, and identity: How does where a program takes place shape the power and identity of participating professionals? The practical problem I examine here is the way in which place is implicated in and shaping of what many take to be the apolitical, routine technical work of producing and managing continuing education in the professions. What is often taken to be simply technical process I wish to show to be deeply political.

My starting point is that "place" plays a significant role in shaping continuing professional education. People invest in place to empower themselves (Harvey, 1992). Where we "locate" our CPE programs profoundly shapes not only their purposes and process, but also significantly the power relations that shape the identities of the participating professionals, of the professions themselves, and importantly the power professionals and professions exercise in society. In my view technical prescriptions for designing and implementing CPE programs have important consequences for the identity of professionals and their ability to exercise power in society. I now turn to a discussion of the analysis framework I used in this study, the methodology, a summary of findings, and practical implications (the details of the case selectively overviewed here can be found in Wilson, in press a; see also Wilson, in press b, for a discussion of the theoretical background and contradictions in this analysis used here).

ANALYSIS: PLACE, POWER, AND IDENTITY

This study draws from two related frames of contemporary social analysis. First, it is becoming increasingly clear that not only are knowledge and power interconnected (Foucault, 1980) but that knowledge, power, space/place closely intertwine to frame our social practices (Soja, 1989). A second concept is that of "locating" a politics of identity (Keith & Pile, 1993). Place has to be seen as a constituting and constituted dimension of human interaction as well as a significant factor in the politics of identity (Keith & Pile, 1993; Soja, 1989). This study uses these two concepts--space as a key component of social analysis and place as fundamental to identity--to argue that place plays a formative role in shaping power and identity. I parrot Harvey's (1993) questions, by what social processes is space constructed, to ask how does place shape/produce power and identity in and through continuing education practice. To do this, I have set about constructing a "geography" of continuing professional education by "mapping" the relationships among location, identity, and power. I will argue that the social construction of place is directly implicated in the production/reproduction of power differentials (Harvey, 1992) and professional identity in continuing professional education. Practically this leads to examining how place shapes and is shaped by adult education practice in continuing education.

To investigate these relationships, I asked how the technical work of producing programs (which many consider to be apolitically procedural) used the setting to shape power and identity. Harvey (1992) captures one of the central insights of the reassertion of space into social analysis (Soja, 1989) in claiming "that there are real geographies of social action, real as well as metaphorical territories and spaces of power" (Harvey, 1992, p. 3). Beginning with this contention, Harvey then asks "why and by what means do social beings invest places . . . with social power; and how and for what purposes is that power then deployed and used across a highly differentiated system of interlinked places?" (p. 21). Using Harvey's (1992) matrix to construct geographies of social practices, I first look at the role of *physical place* in continuing education: How did the participants' understanding of the physical location of the program contribute to constructing the professional identity and power of the participating professionals? Second, I show how the academic location helped to construct social networks--*a community*--associated with the power and identity accorded academic places. Finally, I discuss the creation of professional *discourse* shaped by its location in an academic place. To understand something like continuing education in the professions we have to map a geography which reveals how power is created, enacted, altered. Findings indicate that the social construction of place directly influences the production and reproduction of power differentials and that place figures prominently in the construction of identity in continuing education practice.

METHODOLOGY: CRITICAL PERSONAL NARRATIVE AND AUTOETHNOGRAPHY

I analyzed a continuing professional education program produced on a college campus via critical personal narrative and autoethnography methodologies (Burdell & Swadener, 1999). An emerging genre of educational research, critical personal narrative and autoethnography seek to understand "material social forms or discursive structures which serve particular interests" by examining "relationships of power and inequity in a relational context" (p. 21). This orientation to research seeks to "allow us to enter the world of others in ways that have us more present in their experience, while better understanding our own" (p. 21). In this regard autoethnography refers to a form of self-narrative analysis that places the self within a social context to increase such understanding. This methodological approach, according to Burdell and Swadener, is a response to "increasingly 'hyper-theoretical' writing" that "has been criticized for having the effect of disconnecting the experiences and daily lives of those to whom the authors would give 'voice' " (p. 22). This critique has lead to the production of "personal narratives" in which researchers and those "written about" more openly disclose their participation in social practices and their personal relationships with the political dynamics of their circumstances. Such disclosure is accomplished by "side by side narratives," "hyper-listening," and allowing the reader to participate in the conversation in order to reveal "intimate ways" of making sense of experience. The point is to make researchers lives, methods, and power dilemmas more transparent, demystify systems of reasoning, and to raise ethical issues around power relations (Burdell & Swadener, 1999). In this study I have selectively drawn upon this orientation in order to reflectively analyze my own participation in the production of a specific continuing professional education program. In doing that, I have deliberately reconstructed my interpretation of my experience to create a social geography. My intent in this regard has been to become a "live" person in the events I recount in order to make sense of what we as continuing educators routinely do but interpret differently in terms of a technocratic and apolitical professional practice. My purpose in this regard is to dismantle that self-deluding professional discourse in order that we take responsibility for the political and ethical consequences of our professional practices.

PLACE, COMMUNITY, AND DISCOURSE

In terms of findings, first I look at how the physical location of a college campus contributed to constructing the professional identity and power of the participating professionals. Second, I show how the place of the campus helped to construct social networks associated with the prestige of academia rather than the privilege of a resort. Finally, I discuss the creation of professional discourse shaped by its location in an academic place. Thus I use place, community, and discourse to comment on their role in producing/reproducing the identity this group of professionals was trying to construct for itself as well as the professional power they were hoping to achieve through this process of locating their professional identity.

PLACE

Our assumptions about what place *means* are often left undisclosed and taken for granted. For understanding the role of place in creating a social geography of human interaction, there are a number of insightful analyses (see in particular the edited volumes by Friedland & Boden, 1994; Keith & Pile, 1993). So what is the role of place in this continuing professional education program? In terms of seeing this place as a site for the enactment of certain social practices, the college campus represented significant connotations and values for me, the participants, and the profession itself. We collectively presumed that by meeting physically in this place we could then become deliberately associated with the putative authority and legitimacy of academic enterprises. For the past 150 years any occupation that has successfully elevated itself in the public's eye to the status of "profession" has done so by locating itself specifically in universities which explicitly took on the role of producing the scientific knowledge needed to identify the expertise of the profession as well as training the practitioners in the use of that expertise (Larson, 1979). This formula of linking knowledge production with professional training is so well established that most of us take it for granted. A number of leaders in this organization did not, however, take it for granted. They explicitly worked to locate their programs on academic campuses because they believed it would be instrumental in professionalizing the occupation, and I was quite supportive of that strategy at the time. So the importance of locating the program physically on a college campus had real as well as symbolic meaning. In deliberately associating the continuing education programs with the legitimacy bestowed by academic auspices, the association was signaling to its members and the public grounds for and power to do their work as "professionals" who had the requisite knowledge and training. Given that this occupation had historically not successfully managed this transition from trade to profession, the use of the "college" was quite significant in establishing its professional legitimacy, which depended, as Foucault would say, on establishing the knowledge/power couplet, which universities have quite successfully cornered the market on (until recently, that is).

COMMUNITY

Community is of course a notoriously difficulty notion to define. For much traditional sociology and anthropology, community has consisted of the place in which face-to-face social interaction happens on a recurring basis (Giddens, 1990). While some might put forth the notion that such face-to-faceness has become both undermined and fragmented in our globalizing and telecommunicating world, for many humans the "compulsion of proximity" (Boden & Molotch, 1994) still remains an essential dimension to constituting human community. Boden and Molotch (1994) argue that community depends upon "the robust nature and enduring necessity of *traditional* [meaning face-to-face] human communication procedures" (p. 258). They argue that for biographical and historical reasons, "copresence" remains "the fundamental mode of human intercourse and socialization" (p. 258). So, despite claims to the contrary, such "proximity" remains central to human community and, as Revill (1993) says, "has been championed as a source of identity, of moral and social stability, of shared meaning and mutual co-operation" (p. 119), meaning it has an important "part to play in the way people think about themselves, in the construction of subjectivity" (p. 120). Revill further argues that the "social and physical boundaries and the rituals" that define communities "therefore become of paramount importance to the construction of community" because it is about "defining and ordering relationships between you and me, us and them" (p. 130). Revill suggests that communities shape the production of identity through informal social networks, the shared experience of people, and a sense of history.

The real physical location of the college campus was important for establishing the symbolic meaning of the program. That physical place was also important for creating space for copresence. Now, of course, that copresence would be possible at any site chosen for the program. But in this case the need to professionally legitimate the occupation by its location on a college campus was crucial to shaping the sense of community the participants were constructing. So it was important for that copresence to be in a place which would define the meaning of the community in such a way that would promote a professional identity. Now it is fairly routine to hear professionals proclaim that while the organized events of any program or conference are important, the "real" reason they go is for the professional networking, the collegiality, the "informal" interacting with others to make or continue important professional contacts. Thus our strategy as programmers was to provide place in which those significant interactions could occur but would have a specific meaning that would contribute to developing a sense of professional community. Although we were routinely challenged on this, a college was essential to us in establishing the legitimacy of the profession in a way that a resort would only speak to the privilege of established professions. So by using the organizational and participants professed interests in continuing professional education, we devised specific conditions that would also enhance the development of professional community by using the specific meanings associated with the college campus site. Further, creating these conditions for copresence contributed directly to the development of a national community identity.

DISCOURSE

A central solidifier of place and community is discourse because it shapes "the logic of relations of contiguity in space and time and, in so doing, pattern[s] the organization and meaning of our lives" (Friedland & Boden, 1994, p. 24). So how does discourse pattern meaning and life and in what ways is it associated with place? In his overall work Foucault (1970) repeatedly returned to the theme that different historical periods define different modalities of "truth." Modernity's truth, as he would say, is disciplinary. Disciplines are productive relations of discourses and power (the knowledge/power couplet): "the exercise of power perpetually creates knowledge and, conversely, knowledge constantly induces effects of power" (Foucault, 1980, p. 52). Professional discourse represents dominant understandings of how the world works and people's relations to each other in it. Power emanates from these structures of knowledge that allows practitioners of disciplines ("professionals") to define others as "objects" of professional knowledge and manipulation (Wilson, 1999). And the font of modern disciplinary power has increasingly resided over the last 150 years in academic places.

In this case the academic place and the construction of community were solidified by using plenary sessions to introduce discipline theory for unifying the profession. So using Foucault I want to suggest that the construction of a specific occupational discourse focused on producing a body of knowledge was essential to creating both a community of professionals and the knowledge/power they needed to identify themselves to the public as professionals. The relationship between place and community becomes more significant when tied into the creation of a specific disciplinary discourse--it now becomes clear the premium placed on associating this continuing education program with a college, why the place was significant in establishing the community whose professional power depended on defining disciplinary knowledge. The difficulty facing this occupation in establishing its identity and power had been its historical failure to develop a disciplinary body of knowledge. As is the case with most professions, producing that disciplinary knowledge and training practitioners needed locating in an academic setting. Thus the program was deliberately placed on an academic campus to frame its community in a discursive fashion.

OUR RESPONSIBILITIES AS CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATORS

The central finding is to show how place, community, and discourse come together to construct the identity and power of the participants and the profession and how power and identity are played out and through and in place. At an analytical level, I think the study takes insights of the new geography and locational politics of identity to better understand the complex social processes by which we create power and identity. Much of the programmatic effort in this case was intentionally directed at producing and enhancing the discipline power of the occupation in order that it better be able to exercise that power in its practices. Thus I would support the notion that there are significant spatial dimensions to human interaction and that the production of professional power is indeed embedded in the spatial definition of our professional communities.

There are also practical connotations. I remain quite ambivalent about my activities as an educator in this and similar programs. Consequently, a significant question for me has been the role of continuing educators in producing such programs, particularly in terms of how our programmatic actions are linked to shaping relations of power and identity. I think it is apparent that we do have a role in producing and shaping these relations whether we want to or not. In the human geography I am sketching here, as educators we are quite involved in producing and altering relations of power. In my view there is no way to escape such complicity. It appears quite clear in this case that both deliberate as well as accidental decisions were made about what are too often considered technical programmatic issues which had significant effects on how the place, community, and discourse dimensions shaped the power and identity of the participating professionals. These are not issues which can be safely subsumed under the guise of technical expertise; nor are they ignorable. The question is what do we do about it. In other words, where lies our responsibility? As more and more frequently pointed out, adult educators for too long have attempted to define themselves professionally as technicians of educational process. Building on previous work (Cervero & Wilson, 1994, 1998), I am using this study to argue for a specific politicalness to our practice. If theory is to be plausible, strategic, and morally grounded (Forester, 1989), then we must work to make clear the politics and ethics that illuminate our technical expertise. Cervero and I have argued that adult educators must recognize and take responsibility for the political ethical consequences of their educational actions. Recently I have argued that continuing professional educators, because of the increasing professional systemization and concomitant decrease of professional autonomy, must take on deliberate client advocacy roles (Wilson, in press c). Here I want to expand our responsibility by becoming aware of the semiotic significance of what too many of us take to be routine technical dimensions to continuing education work. This is a daunting task from which many educators will clearly shy away, for it is difficult first to see these deeply embedded, often hegemonic cultural practices and second to have the political skill and ethical vision to challenge them. Yet if we are to become responsible educators, we must take up these challenges – for if we do not, we become unwitting accomplices in the differentiated production of power through our educational efforts.

REFERENCES

Burdell, P., & Swadener, B. (1999). Critical personal narrative and autoethnography in education: Reflections on a genre. *Educational Researcher, 28*(6), 21-26.

Boden, D., & Molotch, H. (1994). The compulsion of proximity. In R. Friedland & D. Boden (Eds.), *NowHere: Space, time and modernity* (pp. 257-286). Berkeley: University of California Press.

Cervero, R. M. (1998, September). Continuing professional education in transition. Symposium conducted on Workplace Learning and Performance in the 21st Century, University of Alberta, SK.

Cervero, R., & Wilson, A. (1994). *Planning responsibly for adult education: A guide to negotiating power and interests*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Cervero, R., & Wilson, A. (1998). Working the planning table: The political practice of adult education. *Studies in Continuing Education, 20*(1), 5-22.

Forester, J. (1989). *Planning in the face of power.* Berkeley: University of California

Foucault, M. (1970). *The order of things.* New York: Random House.

Foucault, M. (1980). *Power/knowledge: Selected interviews and other writings, 1972-1977* (C. Gordon, Ed.). New York: Pantheon.

Friedland, R., & Boden, D. (Eds.). (1994). *NowHere: Space, time and modernity.* Berkeley: University of California Press.

Giddens, A. (1990). *The consequences of modernity.* Stanford: Stanford University Press.

Harvey, D. (1992). From space to place and back again: Reflections on the condition of postmodernity. In J. Bird, B. Curtis, T. Putnam, G. Robertson, & L. Tickner (Eds.), *Mapping the futures: Local cultures, global change* (pp. 3-30). London: Routledge.

Harvey, D. (1993). Class relations, social justice and the politics of difference. In M. Keith & S. Pile (Eds.), *Place and the politics of identity* (pp. 22-40). London: Routledge.

Keith, M., & Pile, S. (Eds.). (1993). *Place and the politics of identity.* London: Routledge.

Larson, M. (1979). *The rise of professionalism.* Berkeley: University of California Press.

Revill, G. (1993). Reading Rosehill: Community, identity and inner-city Derby. In M. Keith & S. Pile, *Place and the politics of identity* (pp. 117-140). London: Routledge.

Soja, E. (1989). *Postmodern geographies.* London: Verso.

Wilson, A. L. (1999). Creating identities of dependency: Adult education as a knowledge-power regime. *International Journal of Lifelong Education, 18*, 85-93.

Wilson, A. L. (in press a). Place, power, and planning in continuing professional education. In R. M. Cervero, A. L. Wilson, & Associates, *Foundations of adult education practice: The struggle for knowledge and power.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Wilson, A.L. (in press b). Place matters: Shaping power and identity. *Proceedings of the Forty-first Adult Education Research Conference.* Vancouver, BC: University of British Columbia.

Wilson, A.L. (in press c). Professional practice in the 'modern' world. In V. W. Mott & B. J. Daley (Eds.), *New horizons in continuing professional education.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Wilson, A.L., & Cervero, R.M. (1997). The song remains the same: The selective tradition of technical rationality in adult education program planning. *International Journal of Lifelong Education, 16*, 84-108.

Arthur L. Wilson, Education, 422 Kennedy Hall, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY 14853.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA March 16-18, 2000

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Papers

LEARNING TO LIVE BEYOND A HEART ATTACK: AN INTERPRETIVE CASE STUDY OF INDIVIDUALS' EXPERIENCES WITH AN ON-LINE HEART DISEASE EDUCATION PROGRAM

Meg Wise

ABSTRACT

Despite the proliferation of on-line health programs, little is known about how they are used and integrated into living with chronic illnesses like heart disease. Most on- and off-line heart disease education focuses on individual behavior change and is evaluated on specific expert-defined outcomes. This study focused on the learners' perspective--how their heart event influenced subsequent learning and how CHESS, a computerized education program, fit in. Interviews of six individuals who used CHESS in a larger evaluation study were analyzed using grounded theory. The heart event sharpened focus on prior life purpose and health knowledge. The degree of engagement in relationships influenced how individuals changed their life. Relationships were essential for motivating and facilitating specific behavior changes. CHESS was most highly valued by those who used it for social connection, and most used by those with lingering effects from the event. Much of CHESS' information about behavior change was already known; technical information lacked depth and specificity; cognitive interactive tools were difficult to use and did not match naturalistic change processes, suggesting that designers focus on simplified interfaces that foster both collaborative and individual experiential learning.

INTRODUCTION

About a half a million people in the U.S. die from heart attacks or complications of coronary artery disease each year--making it the leading killer of both men and women (American Heart Association, 1999). Thousands of research studies over several decades have found that a healthy lifestyle reduces symptoms and extends survival time. Most post-heart event patients do not "succeed" with adopting regular exercise, low-fat diet, reducing their stress levels, or quitting smoking (AHCPR, 1995). Cardiac rehabilitation programs use self-efficacy and stage-based behavior change theories (Prochaska, 1994) to provide information and training for exercise and other heart healthy behaviors. Cardiac rehabilitation improves health and behavioral outcomes for about half of those who participate, but only 38% of post-heart attack patients participate, due to time, geographic, economic and cultural constraints (AHCPR, 1995). Many health care organizations provide on-line programs to compensate for these barriers. While it is well known that access to computers is skewed toward people with higher incomes and educational levels, little is known about *how* individuals use and benefit from computerized health programs for advanced heart disease, when a computer and training session are provided. *CHESS: Living With Heart Disease*, a self-directed computerized heart education program, was developed and evaluated by a multi-disciplinary team of university researchers and clinicians. It provided information, interactive planning tools, and on-line communication with peers and experts to facilitate lifestyle changes (Johnson et al., 1999). A six-month randomized pilot test was conducted with about 50 post-heart attack or heart surgery patients to evaluate an early version of CHESS' effects on behavior change learning processes and outcomes. Computers and home training were provided to the CHESS group. Preliminary analysis of pre- and post-test survey data indicates that CHESS had positive effects on learning processes for diet, exercise and stress management. These findings evaluated learning as sample-wide effects for expert-defined behavioral outcomes, and raise two questions that are not addressed in the interactive health literature (see Eng & Gustafson, 1999). First is how individuals' thematic use patterns (e.g., CHESS diet content) correlated with their corresponding behavior outcomes (e.g., diet change); this is addressed elsewhere (Wise, Yun, & Shaw, in press). The second question takes the learners' perspective and is the focus of this paper, *How did* *individuals' experience influence the whole post-heart event learning process, and how did CHESS fit in?*

METHODS

In-depth interviews were conducted and analyzed with eleven self-selected CHESS study participants upon removal of the study computer--about 12-18 months after their heart event. Six of the eleven were then selected for in-depth analysis, using a criterion of maximum variation. The Caucasian sample included three men (ages 50, 55, and 76) and three women (ages 39, 49, and 72). All were married and ranged from high school to post-graduate education; from severe on-going disability to no measurable damage. Two were retired, two had returned to work, and two had to quit due to their heart condition. All but one lived in small Midwestern communities. Two women and one man were initially misdiagnosed. All were consciously engaged and successful in the health behavior that "mattered" most--two already had an overall healthy lifestyle when their event occurred; all three smokers had quit immediately after their event without intervention; and one man had lost 60 pounds through diet and exercise. Only one had some prior computer experience. CHESS usage ranged from practically none to the very highest in the larger CHESS sample. This sample had a higher proportion of females and was more "successful" with behavior change than the larger CHESS study sample, which in turn was younger (59 vs. 66 years); more educated; married; and "successful" with health habits than the general heart disease population (AHCPR, 1995; Johnson et al., 1999). Open-ended questions asked participants to reflect on their life since their heart event, what they learned and how they came to understand it, and how CHESS fit in. Interviews were taped, transcribed and analyzed using grounded theory method (Strauss, 1987). Grounded theory was developed to operationalize Symbolic Interactionism, which espouses that individuals construct and interpret their reality in constant interaction with their social world (Bowers, 1988). The purpose of the method is to generate theory from data gathered directly from those who experience the phenomenon--rather than imposing a priori assumptions or testing existing theories. Strauss (1987) describes grounded theory analysis as a process of raising concrete concepts to more abstract categories by constantly comparing data within and across interviews, and eventually identifying the core category around which all other categories relate. Theory generation includes defining the categories' dimensions and interrelationships, and identifying how they manifest under various conditions with different strategies. Emerging theoretical categories were discussed in a grounded theory research group to ensure that they were grounded in the data and to avoid fitting data into existing theories.

FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to discover how experiencing a heart event influences subsequent learning and how CHESS fit in. Three *main* categories emerged: the core category, *Changing How I Live*; *Purpose for Changing*; and *Pathways to Changing*, under which CHESS fit. Several conditions affected the dimensions of these categories, including the level of engagement in relationships, the heart event and its emotional and physical lingering effects, prior knowledge and learning habits, and access to resources. *Relationships* played a key role all categories. Figure 1 is a conceptual framework of the process of changing one's life after a heart attack. The core category, *Changing How I Live*, included both Existential and Action dimensions (1). The degree and types of changing were influenced by the nature of one's *Purpose for Changing* (2) and by several Conditions (3). The severity of the event and its lingering emotional and physical effects sharpened focus on one's purpose (2) and on prior conditions (3)--most significantly one's engagement in relationships, and prior health habits. Those with high relationship engagement defined their *Purpose for Changing* (2) as doing whatever it took to live on, while the one who spoke of a sense of completion and distance, identified his purpose as coming to accept dying as inevitable. The four who took the most action to change (1) each interpreted their heart event as life threatening and acted as if they had been given a "second chance" (3). Relationships became the highest priority, and were the most powerful *Pathway to Changing* (4)–providing on-going motivation, purpose and the needed social structures to exercise, change eating, reduce stress; and gather, interpret and integrate information into their daily lives. Relationships were also central

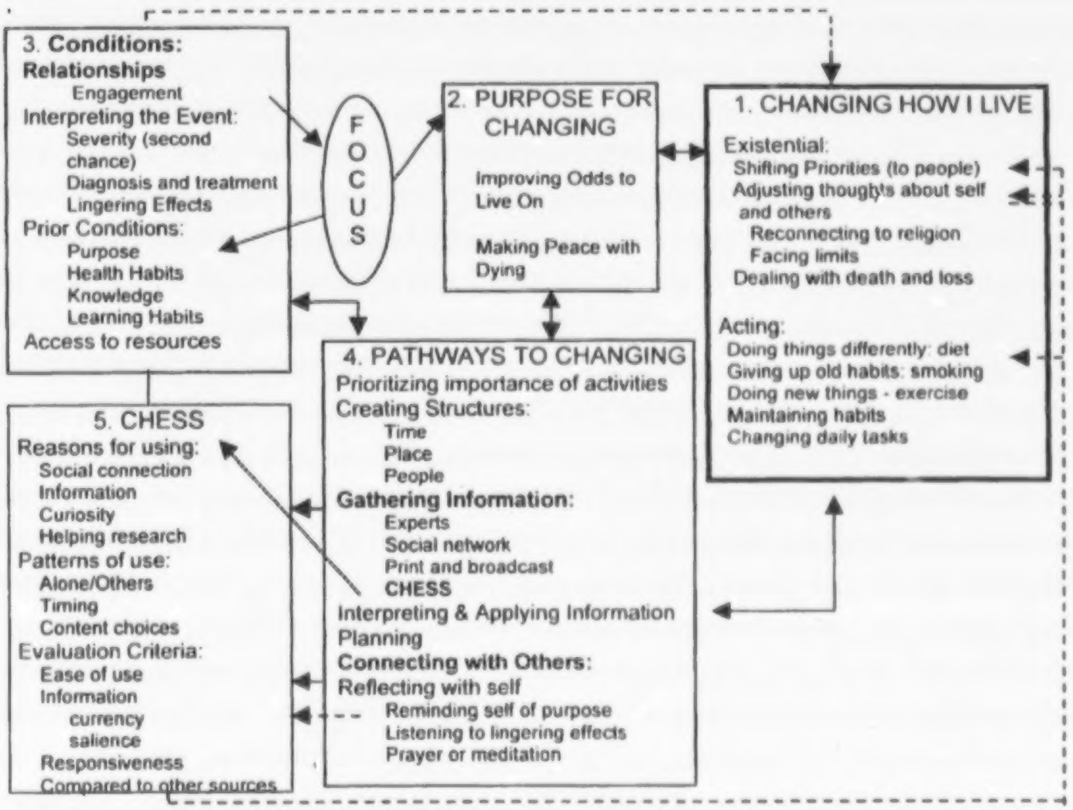

3. Conditions:
Relationships
Engagement
Interpreting the Event:
Severity (second chance)
Diagnosis and treatment
Lingering Effects
Prior Conditions:
Purpose
Health Habits
Knowledge
Learning Habits
Access to resources
F O C U S
2. PURPOSE FOR CHANGING
Improving Odds to Live On
Making Peace with Dying
1. CHANGING HOW I LIVE
Existential:
Shifting Priorities (to people)
Adjusting thoughts about self and others
Reconnecting to religion
Facing limits
Dealing with death and loss
Acting:
Doing things differently: diet
Giving up old habits: smoking
Doing new things - exercise
Maintaining habits
Changing daily tasks
4. PATHWAYS TO CHANGING
Prioritizing importance of activities
Creating Structures:
Time
Place
People
Gathering Information:
Experts
Social network
Print and broadcast
CHESS
Interpreting & Applying Information
Planning
Connecting with Others:
Reflecting with self
Reminding self of purpose
Listening to lingering effects
Prayer or meditation
5. CHESS
Reasons for using:
Social connection
Information
Curiosity
Helping research
Patterns of use:
Alone/Others
Timing
Content choices
Evaluation Criteria:
Ease of use
Information
currency
salience
Responsiveness
Compared to other sources

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework for Changing after a Heart Event

to how *CHESS* (5), part of *Pathways to* Changing (4) was valued most by those who *already were already engaged in changing them,* but did not otherwise motivate change. CHESS was least used and appreciated by those who already had heart healthy behaviors, supportive relationships, ready access to experts and programs, and/or found the technological learning curve too steep. Lack of responsiveness to their chat-line messages, news in the mass media and needs for in-depth specific information caused frustration with CHESS and their study cohorts. While several dimensions for changing after a heart event were identified here, the next section focuses on how individuals' relationships and purpose influenced their CHESS experience.

REALTIONSHIPS, PURPOSE FOR CHANGING AND CHESS USAGE

CHESS was used and appreciated most by those who were deeply engaged in their relation-ships--to love, be loved and take responsibility for others, and who said their heart event gave them a second *chance*. Embracing the second chance included reflecting on prior health behaviors, and changing those that would increase their odds. This group used CHESS primarily for social connection, secondarily for information and barely for planning and guidance; it included Jenna and family, Matt and Rita, Margo and Dan. By comparison, neither Nick nor Hannah used CHESS for social connection. Nick surveyed all of CHESS' information and found it accurate but too basic, as it duplicated other resources and did not tell him, *"what's new today"*. Hannah barely used it. But neither described their heart event as a second chance--both already had good health habits, a satisfying and supportive marriage and easy access to experts and resources. Hannah's surprise heart attack, at age 71, left no measurable damage. She had resumed her active retirement—traveling, charitable work and deep involvement with her married children and grandchildren. Despite the training session, she also found CHESS' learning curve too steep. Nick, who had had a heart attack sixteen years earlier, was constantly fatigued from his second heart attack, at age 76.

With a companionable 50-plus year marriage and a distant relationship with a married daughter, Nick said the most profound change was his shifting attitude about dying and a more relaxed attitude toward his lifestyle: "I guess nobody's looking forward to death, but I don't really dread it I guess. When I was younger I used to think death was this terrible thing; . . . now I know that it's inevitable. So I'm not quite as careful as I should be. When I go out to eat, . . . I eat what's on the menu. . . . I don't over do it. I just want to enjoy what I've got." The next section focuses on Jenna, Margo, Dan and Matt for making the most of a second chance and for using CHESS for social interaction.

Making the most of a second chance. Jenna, a 37 year old married woman, and her five children, ages 9-21, all have heart disease. She almost died from a massive heart attack and a subsequent aortal rip: "The cardiologist said I shouldn't be here. I felt like I had a second chance." Her children were "an incentive to get better." She said, "I cannot be an invalid and I cannot die. I have to be here until they're 18 at least, minimal. So, we have another ten years with Amanda". Jenna embraced her second chance by immediately quitting a 3-pack-a-day smoking habit, but acknowledges that, "It's been hard--very, very hard. You gotta remind yourself all the time, but you wanna forget. I cannot do what I used to be able to do. I got a heart problem." The whole family has fully participated in constructing a new life, specifically through supportive interaction and joining in "an all family eating program"--with her husband as low-fat family chef.

Dan's purpose, at age 55, keeps him exercising and on his diet. He lost 60 pounds, restructured his busy professional life to share child rearing equally with his wife, and deals openly with stress and emotions, *"With those two little ones I want to make sure they get graduated from high school. And that's a long ways out seeing as how one of them just started kindergarten. All I have to do is think about those two, and then I get on that treadmill or I go to the exercise thing."*

"He keeps throwing me back, for some reason," said Margo (age 49), who had lost count of her heart surgeries, was very limited physically, and was awaiting a heart transplant. She describes her first near death experience: "I was conscious and things were starting to shut down. . . . I could feel myself leaving, going away, and I thought, 'Oh Lord not now. There's so much left to do.' And the image I saw was my granddaughter's face. There was nothing for just a couple of seconds. . . . And then I was back. . . . I just know that I gotta hang around a while yet. I want to see those kids grow up. Especially her. She's my buddy." This purpose helped Margo quit a heavy smoking habit and become a persistent and knowledgeable self-advocate against her insurance companies.

Matt and Rita insisted on being interviewed together; they had been a team throughout Matt's (age 49) heart attack--exercising, helping him quit smoking--and telling their story. Rita: "I think it just makes us realize we're more important. It doesn't matter about work. It doesn't' matter if the lawn doesn't get mowed, if the laundry doesn't get done." Matt: "I've realized that I'm very much vulnerable to illness. It was a real shock to me, but then like Rita said, it's a second chance. We've actually been working hard on our second chance. . . . We're happier now than when we first fell in love eighteen years ago."

CHESS and social relationships. CHESS was used and appreciated most for facilitating communication and learning within the family and/or with other CHESS users, secondarily for individual information gathering, and least for the interactive planning tools (diet action plan and tracking assessment with tailored feedback) which were described as too complicated and tedious. Matt and Jenna integrated CHESS into their families, while Dan and Margo used it alone to connect with other users. Matt & Rita were a team--both actively using the chat-line and she accessing all the information. On the other hand, CHESS was fun and salient for Jenna's whole family: "It was a new toy. We used to huddle around and look up lots of information. All the children have the problem. They don't wanna lose their ma, either, so they'd use it and drag me into the room, saying, 'Look at this. Ma. . . . Everybody got in on the nutrition facts [Diet Action Plan] to see where they were standing as far as what they ate. That was kind of fun for everyone. . . . When the carbohydrate thing came up, I was eating noodles every day, and wasn't dropping a pound. . . . Then we all gathered around the computer [and used CHESS'] Ask an Expert, and sure enough carbohydrates wasn't where it's at."

The chat-line provided varying degrees of satisfaction. Matt, along with Rita, was a heavy user. "I got a lot from CHESS. Not so much on details, but talking to people...who had gone through the same thing as I went through." After two active months, however, the chat-line dialog became sparse. Jenna, the most active chat-line user said, "That's where I guess the aggravation really started creeping in. It's like, 'Where are you people?' [My hopes were that more people would join in] 'cause the more people you have in a group the more information, . . . and if nothing else, on one of those sleepless nights or boring days there would just be somebody to talk to that understood the whole heart disease. Or maybe not even talk about heart disease. Just to chat. Sometimes just to laugh is a relief. You're alive, let's share it. That wasn't happening" Margo, a moderate chat-line user, did not want to dump her problems into the group, as she was severely limited physically and awaiting a heart transplant while battling insurance companies whose inadequate coverage had left her and her husband hundreds of thousands of dollars in debt. She appreciated the support, but also felt alone because no one else shared her physical or financial experience. She, like the others, had much more technical and practical knowledge about her specific condition than CHESS offered (e.g., gene therapy, fighting medical and insurance). Dan, who had battled depression, was actively but unsuccessfully seeking a peer support group in his area, and was disappointed that the chat-line did not fulfill that void.

CONCLUSION

This small interpretive study used a highly self-selected sample that first agreed to participate in a randomized computer education study and further agreed to participate in an in-depth interview. As such, compared to the general heart disease population, they were more emotionally open, knowledgeable about their condition and treatments, and highly motivated participants in their health habits. Nonetheless, the interviews were rich and the sample had sufficient variation for some preliminary observations and suggestions. First, relationships and the emotions experienced in them were central to all aspects of learning to live beyond a heart event--for constructing meaning, giving life purpose, providing a strategy for changing, and for using and benefiting from CHESS. Second, perceiving the illness as life threatening, having on-going effects, prior "unhealthy" behaviors, and most of all a strong purpose were necessary to changing lifestyle. Such changes are profound learning endeavors that require a fundamental shift in perspective and on-going social and emotional engagement. Third, technical knowledge may be more salient *once one is already engaged in the change process*--rather as a rational means to motivate change. Thus, for chronic illnesses, information should provide higher levels of legal or technical specificity than for acute crises, where basic information is needed quickly to make treatment decisions. Additionally instrumental information, like recipes, becomes meaningful when it is interpreted, reflected, acted upon or shared with others. These observations are reflected in the literatures of adult learning that address social context, self-reflection and perspective transformation (Jarvis, 1987; Mezirow, 1991); and health/emotions/social relationships (Ornish, 1998) which addresses the complex relationships between individual, sociological and biological aspects of health. These challenge individually-oriented educational theories and traditional heart disease education practice, which take a rational, mechanistic view of health and learning, place the onus of behavior change on individuals; assume self-direction; and provide cognitive and action-oriented learning experiences that lack dialog and emotional or existential reflection.

Fourth, CHESS was most appreciated when used for social interaction, and most frustrating when dialog thinned out. Information was most appreciated when it facilitated specific behaviors and was least appreciated when it replicated other sources, or lacked depth and specificity. Barriers to usage included perceived lack of need for information and support, and too steep of a learning curve. This early and since improved version of CHESS (http://chess.chsra.wisc.edu), however, extended and enhanced cardiac rehabilitation for some by providing geographic and temporal convenience, and opportunities for self-pacing and social interaction. So how did CHESS fit into the whole learning experience? It played a relatively minor role in behavior change, but was very significant to help Jenna and family and Matt and Rita cope. They used it as a family, with other resources, and enjoyed the most active chat-line phase. Dan used the recipes, but was frustrated by the sparse chat-line. Margo appreciated it, but her struggles were well beyond what CHESS could offer. So what does this mean for facilitating on-line health learning for chronic illnesses? First, less emphasis should be placed on individualized, self-directed learning, and more on dialog that encourages construction of knowledge and meaning, experimentation and reflection. The chat-line was designed to facilitate dialog, but was sparse and parsimonious compared to the CHESS Breast Cancer program's chat-line (see Davison & Pennebaker, 1997), raising questions about the social perception of each illness and whether models can transfer across chronic and acute crisis illnesses. Research is needed to discover on-line learning environments that provide opportunities for dialogic, reflective learning, such as story telling, seminars, or small group work. Second, interactive planning tool interfaces must be simplified and designed for use with significant others. They required too much user input for the level of tailored messages received. Interactive tailoring is young and the challenges are great--a computer is not a brain, which can analyze hundreds of variables before responding. Finally, not everyone will use and benefit from on-line health learning. Therefore, healthcare organizations should evaluate program quality, assess learning preferences; and provide appropriate learning options and on-line training.

REFERENCES

AHCPR. (1995). *Cardiac rehabilitation* (Clinical Practice Guideline No. 17). Rockville, MD: U. S. Department of Health and Human Services, Agency for Health Care Policy and Research.

American Heart Association. (1999). *Heart and stroke statistical update.* Dallas, TX: American Heart Association.

Bowers, B. (1988). Grounded theory. In B. Sarter (Ed.), *Paths to knowledge* (pp. 33-59). New York: National League for Nursing.

Davison, K. & Pennebaker, J. (1997). Virtual narratives: Illness representations in on-line support groups. In K. Petrie & J. Weiman (Eds.), *Perceptions of health and illness* (pp. 463-485). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: Harwood Academic Publishers.

Eng, T. R., & Gustafson, D. H. (1999). *Wired for health and well-being: Science panel on interactive communication and health.* Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of Disease Prevention and Health Promotion.

Jarvis, P. (1987). *Adult learning in the social context.* London: Croom Helm.

Johnson, P., Owens, B., Wise, M., Shaw, B., Yun, G., Bates, J., Macer, J., Ende, D., & Gustafson, D. (1999). *Impact of computer-based support on cardiac patient rehabilitation.* Manuscript submitted for publication.

Mezirow, J. (1991). *Transformative dimensions in adult learning.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Ornish, D. (1998). *Love and Survival.* New York: HarperCollins

Prochaska, J. (1994). Strong and weak principles for progressing from precontemplation to action on the basis of twelve problem behaviors. *Health Psychology, 13*(1) 47-51.

Strauss, A. (1987). *Qualitative analysis for social scientists.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Wise, M., Yun, G., & Shaw, B. (in press). Mapping use of a self-directed on-line heart disease program onto health learning outcomes: A correlational study of post-heart event learners. *Proceedings of the 41st Annual Adult Education Research Conference.* Vancouver, B.C.: University of British Columbia.

Meg Wise, Assistant Researcher, Center for Health Systems Research and Analysis, University of Wisconsin, 610 Walnut Street # 1126, Madison, WI 53705. mewise@facstaff.wisc.edu

I wish to acknowledge my CHESS project colleagues, P. Johnson, B. Owens, and D. Gustafson.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State University, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000

ER- AERC

REFEREED SYMPOSIA

Eastern Regional
Adult Education Research Conference

March 16-18, 2000

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Symposia

BUILDING UPON THE UNESCO RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE NEW MILLENNIUM. LEARNING TO LIVE TOGETHER: A SYMPOSIUM OF PERSPECTIVES

Marcie Boucouvalas
Robert McCabe
Juthamas Thongsukmag
Vanviva Bhumibhanit

ABSTRACT

Since inception in 1945, UNESCO has played a prominent role in having sponsored five major assemblies addressed to the role of adult education in individual and collective development around the world. Official agenda and action plans discussed and signed by country delegates resulted from each assembly and have provided a common basis for re-structuring policy and re-visioning the future of adult education around the globe. After a review of these landmark events, the symposium spotlights the most recent, held during 1997 in Hamburg, Germany, entitled: Adult Learning: The key to the new millennium. As with previous Assemblies, a major report undergirded deliberations. The Delors Report (named for the committee chair; Delors, 1996) articulated four "pillars of learning" fundamental to life in the new millennium: learning to do, know (think), be, and live together. Because of the foundational importance of "learning to live together," and the more recent U.N. Manifesto designating 2000 as the Year of the Culture of Peace, the symposium explores this multi-faceted "pillar" and its implications for the study and practice of adult education from three perspectives: (a) a lesson from the world of business, (b) on gender and culture (a dialogue between two Thai educators, and (c) the humanitarian crisis: learning to live together not just as individuals, but as collectives and nations in a global context. Questions are designed to catalyze dialogue both with the audience as well as among the presenters.

INTRODUCTION

In the global world of adult learning and education UNESCO has been a catalyst. Major efforts have always focused on the role adult education (as a field of both study and practice) in individual and collective development, including nation building. Since inception in 1945 UNESCO has sponsored 5 major assemblies involving heads of state along with key adult educators: 1949 in Elsinore, Denmark; 1960 in Montreal, Canada; 1972 in Tokyo; 1985 in Paris; and the most recent 1997 in Hamburg, Germany. All Assemblies have addressed the context of their times and produced pivotal documents which have been influential in restructuring and revisioning policy and practice around the globe. The 1997 Assembly recognized the globalization (social as well as economic), transformation, increasing interconnectedness, with a simultaneously increasing concern for human rights violations. The two resulting policy documents, which were adopted, provide a common framework for the field for at least the next decade: The Declaration on Adult Learning (as a right, a tool, a joy, and a shared responsibility) and the Agenda for the Future (guidelines and action plan for the future of adult learning in the coming years). As with previous Assemblies, a major report provided a conceptual frame. The Delors Report (named after the committee chair; Delors, 1996) provided direction for the 1997 Assembly. Articulated as essential to life in the new millennium were four pillars of learning: Learning to do, know, be, and live together. Since "learning to live together" was deemed fundamental, we have chosen to give it our focus. Among the challenges acknowledged in the officially resulting documents, we have distilled the following for attention in this symposium: the world of work, equality and empowerment of women and cultural diversity, and human rights and a culture of peace. We provide three different perspectives in content area as well as approach. McCabe, in an analytic manner, extrapolates from examples in the business world to offer lessons we might heed in learning to live together. Bhumibhanit and Thongsukmag, in a dialogic manner, invite us into their lived world of gender inequality and cultural diversity, significantly important areas on the "Agenda for the Future."

Finally, Boucouvalas, in a visionary manner, speaks to the macro level of "Learning to Live Together" as collectives and nations around the globe. All offer both ponder and challenge questions to build upon the UNESCO Recommendations and lead us into the new millennium years of adult education as a field of practice and study with adult learning at the helm as a "key to the new millennium."

LEARNING TO LIVE TOGETHER: A LESSON FROM THE WORLD OF BUSINESS

While the industrial sector of our society is in no way perfect, the past experience of the business world can certainly help us understand the value of learning to live together. For example, the imperative of survival in corporations has given us many global lessons. The Delors Report (1996), in fact, advocates "tapping in to the outstanding potential offered by non-governmental organizations and hence by grass-roots initiatives, which could provide a valuable backup to international cooperation." (p. 34)

Many of the world's most successful corporations have come to realize that *learning to live together* means that change is normal and it doesn't necessarily mean giving up something, we examine our sphere of concern and expand it to figure out how best to maximize everyone's existence, and we are all in this together and must re-examine the limiting idea that we succeed or fail on our own.

Similarly, two key elements from the Total Quality Movement offer guidance. First, by understanding "systems thinking" we see the world as people and things connected to each other. In a global system we try to understand rather than ignore differences in individuals or cultures in order to maximize system performance and make changes as needed for the good of the *whole* system (Deming, 1994). Second, by understanding the "variation" in a system, we are able to predict and understand the outcome of the system. Understanding the variation means accepting a range (diversity) of outcomes and focusing on ways to improve the systemic processes of the system.

CHANGE IS NORMAL

Nations once based on heavy industry and manufacturing are becoming information-based economies. Second and third world nations that once had agricultural economies are moving into manufacturing and heavy industry. Formerly poor nations have been transformed by the discovery of oil and other natural resources below their land and waters.

One common theme in these transformations is *constant change* which impacts people and their ability to live together peacefully. How can we deal with this change in a positive way?

The management firm of Coopers and Lybrand has found that "95 percent of the problem in introducing innovations is due to poor management of the social activities" involved in the change process (Carr & Littman, 1990, p. 158). In other words, *learning to live together* is by far the most important challenge when managing change.

OUR SPHERE OF CONCERN. SYSTEMS THINKING: DO WE REALLY FAIL OR SUCCEED ON OUR OWN?

Much of the world's business had been based on keen competition and even war-like tactics. However, one trend in industry is to look at the world (or even the cosmos) as a system in which all people and organizations are mutual stakeholders. All actions that do not contribute to the highest goals of the "system" are seen as *suboptimization,* wherein the individual parts take priority over the whole.

Deming, whom many believe to be at the forefront of the quality movement in Japan and the United States, frequently spoke about the insidious problem of suboptimization within companies, the irony of people working successfully within their own department, but when goals are in conflict with other departments, the company may fail (Walton, 1986). Such suboptimization can lead to destructive competition within our own organizations, nations, or educational systems.

Even in the 5th century B. C. Lao Tzu beseeched leaders to set up an environment wherein their followers can flourish *together*. "It is more important to act in [on] behalf of everyone than it is to win. . . . The wise leader is not collecting a string of successes. The leader is helping others to find their own success. There is plenty [success] to go around" (Heider, 1985, p. 161).

VARIATION IN THE SYSTEM

Variation in a system, be it manufacturing or a global system of people, is normal (Langford & Cleary, 1995). How we deal with the variation is the key. When improving the system we don't necessarily obliterate the inherent differences, rather we work to facilitate the interaction of the parts, e.g. improving communication systems, language training, studying and understanding other cultures, etc. In other words, we maximize ways to *learn to live together*.

Studying variation and how it has been addressed in systems can lead to great revelations and change long-held biases. For instance, managers in the manufacturing sector traditionally believed that the workers caused most problems in the production process. Deming studied manufacturing issues and came to a different conclusion. He found that most of the variation (85%, Walton, 1986, p. 94) in a system was a function of the systemic processes, not the workers. Consequently, many successful manufacturers now look for ways to improve their *processes* rather than simply replacing employees in the hope of increasing production, reducing costs and increasing quality. (Deming, 1994).

Improving communications is a way to positively address variation in a system. "Begin talking . . . about shared issues" (Carr & Littman, 1990, p. 115), addressing "trust, common understanding of roles and responsibilities, and common quality goals" (p. 117).

According to Langford and Cleary (1995), another tool to address the variation in a system is *teamwork*. Citing Warren (1989), a top complaint of managers is that few employees know how to work well with others. Likewise, college resident counselors note that freshman have trouble getting along with their fellow residents. Educators are perfectly positioned to ameliorate these problems. "When teachers organize students to work in teams, they are not only providing them with structures within which to solve real problems and develop creative solutions, but teachers are also, simultaneously, meeting the needs of their external customers," i.e., business, government, the global community, etc. (Langford & Cleary, 1995, p.103).

Thus, lessons learned from the business sector can help maximize UNESCO's goal of *learning to live together*. Further study is needed to reap benefit. We invite you to embrace this challenge. Now, let us now listen to a dialogue about a more personal aspect of learning to live together.

LEARNING TO LIVE TOGETHER: ON GENDER AND CULTURE

N: (Juthamas Thongsukmag) If we talk about Thailand most people might not know where it is but if we mention the King and I or Anna and the King, the picture of this country would emerge in your head. Thailand is a small country in Southeast Asia, which some people call "Land of Smiles" because people are nice and friendly. In fact, the real meaning of the country's name is " Land of the Free" because we have never been colonized by other countries. We have a long-time history with our own language and unique culture, which differs from other countries. As you have seen from the King and I, some parts really reflect the men's attitude toward women. For example, women are dominated by men physically and mentally. Obviously, it shows women's inferior status in society. Nowadays, men's perspectives have been gradually and positively changed but some old negative attitudes still remain.

P: (Vanviva Bhumibhanit) Do you all have any ideas why we have chosen to dialogue about this particular topic? Let me tell you. Gender disparity has become a crucial issue recently and it has been widely discussed throughout the world not only in Thailand, which is relatively conservative, but also in developed countries like The United States. Based upon UNESCO (1995) recommendations about gender equality: "Only together, women and men in parity and partnership, can we overcome obstacles and inertia, silence and frustration and insure that insight, political view, creative thinking and concrete action needed for a global transition from the culture of violence to a culture of peace."

N: What do you think about women's position in our society?

P: From my perspective, it's getting better than the past but we still encounter inequity. As my experience at work, I used to work with a boss who always manipulated his subordinates especially females and never considered our work performance. Whenever we had to discuss any issues he never respected our ideas just because we were women. I was so upset and depressed. How about you; have you had any experience like this?

N: Of course, as you know in Thailand there are many restrictions for females to get along with males. For example, a friend of my mother married a guy, who is really conservative. He greatly oppresses her by forcing her to do all housework even though she has her full time work as well. What he expected from her was a perfect job without regard for her feelings at all. I think this is unfair when most women have to work outside and do perfect housework at the same time but men never do anything to relieve their burden.

P: Indeed! Nowadays women's performance comes close to men's, but we still are not considered as important as men are. Therefore, this situation has made some women desperate and reluctant to struggle with this social value anymore. That's the reason why many high-potential working women are not visible. As Thai men always rule and also have a high position in every organization, women are considered inferior to them. The top ranks in a company belong to men and they also hold administrative power. However, more recently some women have become very well known for their excellent work performance. I would like to pick a famous female doctor as an example. She is outstanding among male autopsy doctors. Do you know who she is?

N: Do you mean the one who did the autopsy to solve the mysterious murder case last year?

P: Exactly. Her name is Punthip Rojanasunan.

N: Yes, she is so fascinating because she represents a new image of Thai women and changes the male point of view about women's capacities. It was not so easy for her to be accepted like this. In her interview in *Life and Family magazine* (Pu, 1999) she mentioned that she had been struggling since she was a medical student. Because she performed an outstanding job, it made her classmates, who were all men, dissatisfied because it is hard for men to accept women as equal to them. Significantly, she is the one who raised the status of women to a higher level. She demonstrated that it doesn't matter what gender one is if s/he has capability to play the same role. Her story provides a remarkably beneficial factor that supports women's plight to get along easier in the workplace and society. In general, I feel more comfortable than before but since I have come here I have realized that not only gender segregation but also cultural differences are obstacles for getting along. How about you?

P: I strongly agree with you. From my experience, as an International student living in The United States, I have encountered two main problems: first, was a language barrier; second was cultural difference. When I first came here I had a difficult time with my language because I couldn't smoothly communicate with Americans. The educational system in Thailand teaches students just how to write and read but doesn't teach them how to speak and listen, which are important ways to communicate. So, we have a big problem in dealing with others. Next, because of cultural differences Thai women can't accept some Americans values. Thai women are rather conservative; for example, they can' t accept the way Americans greet each other by kissing and hugging because it is inappropriate in Thai cultural context. I realized that something that is considered right in one context could be completely wrong in another context.

N: You know what? This reminds me of the scholarly literature on adult cognition. We could categorize this as "relativistic" because we have to contemplate carefully what is right or wrong based on each context. You are not the only one who faces this problem; I also have a difficult time dealing with this issue as well. The first couple of months in this country were terrible because I could not even ask for anything to eat. They hardly understood my English because I spoke softly, thinking of it as a polite way. Yet, my understanding was wrong because living in this country you have to speak up loud in order to make others understand your needs. Additionally, cultural differences extremely impact the way of thinking. In Thai culture, we really respect seniority; we are not supposed to debate or discuss with them because it is interpreted as an aggressive manner. Consequently, when I went to graduate school, which needed a lot of participation, I could not handle it suitably because my consciousness still reminded me that professors are much older than me and it is inappropriate to debate with them. It really affected my grade because I was considered as lacking of participation in the classroom.

P Yes, you are absolutely right but I think we should learn how to live with others in different social contexts. From my experience, as the time went by, I learned to gradually adapt myself to a new culture. I widely accepted the new culture and value, then I tried to apply them to my daily life without relinquishing my own culture. I carefully went through the new culture and looked at it without bias, so I could find its advantage and values because I think every culture has its value if we know how to adjust it to our life. Not only that, but also we have to realize that it's a must to adapt ourselves to it as well. If we can't adapt ourselves to the new cultures in this ever-changing world, we certainly will be in big trouble in terms of getting along with others. I think everybody should be open-minded, accepting others' culture and respecting each other. I want everyone to learn from our difficulty in struggling with cultural difference when and if you have to cope with a similar situation. That way you and I and all of us might feel comfortable in every level, surrounded by whatever gender or nationality and live happily in a culture of peace.

N: Based upon the UNESCO Recommendations,

> History has demonstrated repeatedly the enormous resilience of cultures, that is, the capacity of people to adapt and develop responses to urgent social and environmental changes. It is through this process that the values of co-operation can best be emphasized. The Report "Our Creative Diversity" puts its aptly: "Culture shapes all our thinking, imagining and behavior. It is the transmission of behavior as well as a dynamic source for change, creativity, freedom and the awakening of innovative opportunities. For groups and societies, culture is energy, inspiration and empowerment, as well as the knowledge and acknowledgement of diversity. . . . We must learn how to let it lead not to the clash of cultures, but to their fruitful coexistence and to intercultural harmony." (Durand, 1999)

Let's now journey to the macro level.

LEARNING TO LIVE TOGETHER: THE HUMANITARIAN CRISIS AND CHALLENGE

As a human species, it is important to learn to live together not just as individuals, but as collectives and nations in a global context. Hatred and violence are rocking the planet. Just this decade--Rwanda, Somalia, Bosnia, Kosovo, East Timor, and others--let alone this century, the Holocaust. While history is replete with such examples, as we embark upon the new millennium we are being called upon to "learn to live together." The documents from the UNESCO Assembly call for a culture of peace and attention to human rights. Moreover, The Manifesto 2000 (UNESCO, 1999), written by Nobel Peace Laureates, undergirds the United Nations' designation of the year 2000 as the Year of the Culture of Peace. Adult educators are being called upon to play a vital role in the new millennium. Two questions seem prepotent. Based on my own research and practice over the years (e.g., Boucouvalas, 1999), I offer them for dialogue and discussion:

1. How do we learn to live with those we "hate" or, in more diplomatic terms, those who have done us wrong. Perhaps an answer might be not to hate, but how? Armindo Maia, prominent resistance leader and former head of the University of East Timor, suggests that the first problem facing East Timor is "how to live with" the pro-Jakarta militia who helped the Indonesian military carry out a scorched policy that has left the territory in ruins. Maia is quoted as saying: "When you see someone killing and raping your wife and children and burning your house it is normal to hate the perpetrators." (Agence France-Press, 1999). This humanitarian crisis offers an opportunity for us to reconsider our roles, particularly since adult education is a field of practice and study whose roots and genesis were born from a concern with societal matters.

2. How do we move any such "learning to live together" beyond mere behavior? Although the external behavioral aspect of learning to live together is a start, if we promote only that level of learning false facades can be developed and manipulators born and cultivated. How do we recognize and help others recognize when we are being fooled? Alcibiades in ancient Greece, through oratorical skills, persuaded the citizens of his honorable intentions

for the common good, but once elected he demonstrated his self-aggrandizement which led to the downfall of Athens. Stalin succeeded in maintaining a façade of a warm caring man committed to the good of the Soviet people. His paranoia and egoic ambition, however, led to the death of millions . . . and there are others.

REFLECTIONS, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS

UNESCO has given us a foundation and framework for both research and action. Our challenge now is to build upon it. We view this symposium as a small contribution in that direction. While offering different content issues and differing methods of inquiry, a similarity permeating all our themes is the concern with further cultivating both our thinking and way of being in the world as adult learning becomes a key in our new millennium. Darwin once said that it is not necessarily the most intelligent of the species that survive, but those that learn to adapt. With a similar sentiment, Kegan (1994) suggests that it is not one's intelligence per se, but the "order of consciousness" from which one exercises one's intelligence that makes a difference in both surviving and thriving in our world today. Learning to get along means thinking and acting on behalf of all in workplace policies and procedures, in non-hegemonic attitudes and behaviors which transcend gender and cultural differences (without relinquishing the uniquenesses of each), and as nations learning to live and work with and among those with whom we may "violently" disagree. These are just some of our challenges as both researchers and practitioner- professionals. We invite you to join us in dialogue well after this conference concludes.

REFERENCES

Agence France-Presse. (1999, September). *East Timor independence leaders afraid to emerge despite peacekeepers*. Retrieved September 25, 1999, from the World Wide Web: http://www.looksmart.com

Boucouvalas, M. (1999, August). *Toward a civil society: Balancing autonomy and homonomy: Developing a research agenda and action plan for adult educators.* Paper presented at The International Conference on A Century of Adult Education Experiences: What are the lessons for the future? Uppsala, Sweden: University of Uppsala.

Carr, D. K., & Littman, I. D. (1990). *Excellence in government: Total quality management in the 1990s.* Arlington, VA: Coopers & Lybrand.

Delors, J. (1996). *Learning: The treasure within.* Paris: UNESCO

Deming, W. E. (1994). *The new economics for industry, government, education.* Cambridge, MA: MIT.

Durand, R. (1999, May). *Keynote speech* [On-line]. Speech delivered at the National Workshop on a Culture of Peace in Vietnam, Hanoi. Available: http://www.unesco.org/cpp/uk/projects/annex4.htm

Heider, J. (1985). *The Tao of leadership: Leadership strategies for a new age.* New York: Bantam.

Kegan, R. (1994). *In over our heads: The mental demands of modern life.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Langford, D. P., & Cleary, B. A. (1995). *Orchestrating learning with quality.* Milwaukee, WI: ASQC Quality Press.

Pu, R. (1999). Punthip Rojanasunan: An autopsy doctor with a balanced life (J. Thongsukmag & V. Bhumibhanit, Trans.). *Life & Family, 4,* 80-89.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). (1995, September). *Statement on Women's Contribution to a Culture of Peace* [On-line]. Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, China. Available: http://www.unesco.org/cpp/uk/declarations/wcpbei.htm

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). (1999, March). *Manifesto 2000 for a culture of peace and non-violence* [On-line]. Available: http://www2.unesco.org/manifesto2000/

Walton, M. (1986) *The Deming management method.* New York: Putnam.

Warren, W. J. (1989, January 4). Education: New movement seeks to replace rivalry with team spirit. *The New York Times*, p. B11.

Marcie Boucouvalas, Professor of Adult Learning, VA Tech/Northern VA, 7054 Haycock Road, Falls Church, VA 22043.

Robert McCabe, Mgmt. Consultant, Litton/TASC,Inc., 7800 Royston Street, Annandale, VA 22003.

Juthamas Thongsukmag, ESL, Arlington Education & Employment, Graduate Assistant: VA Tech, Home: 10602 Kitty Pozer Drive Apt. 2, Fairfax, VA 22030.

Vanviva Bhumibhanit, Graduate Student, VA Tech/Northern VA, 7054 Haycock Road, Falls Church, VA 22042.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Symposia

THE DIGITAL DIVIDE: WHAT DOES IT MEAN FOR ADULT EDUCATION?

Kathleen P. King
Ayla Tiago
Patricia A. Lawler

ABSTRACT

Recognizing that technology resources are not available equitably across race, gender, socio-economic and urbanization lines, this symposium and paper introduce the concept of the Digital Divide as it particularly pertains to adult education. Three adult educators who represent adult literacy, continuing higher education and the professional development of adult educators, share their experiences and perspectives on the impact and challenges the Digital Divide poses. This paper provides an opportunity for adult educators, administrators, students and professors to become aware of some of the issues involved and strategies that will help "bridge" the divide for all current and prospective adult learners.

INTRODUCTION

Mindful of the work of Jane Addams, Myles Horton, Paulo Freire and Phyllis Cunningham, some prominent figures of the modern adult education movement have been committed to promoting social and political change (Elias & Merriam, 1995; Kett, 1994). As seen among these notable figures, it is not unusual for adult educators to be concerned about social conditions and to become involved in trying to alleviate the problems through adult education practice and policy. Keeping with this emphasis, we recognize the prominent position technology is taking in our national and global economy and the fact that technology use, access and skills are important concerns of all adults and consequently of concern to adult learners, educators and programs. As varied as the contexts of adult education are, in order for adult education programs to continue to meet the needs of learners they must address their technology concerns (Goldberg, 1999; King, 1999; Rosen, 1998; Wagner & Venezky, 1999). Even when separated from its radical and political roots, adult education is all about empowering learners to reach their greatest potential (Elias & Merriam, 1995; Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). In order to do this, we turn to address adult learner's concerns about technology access, use and related issues. As one enters this arena, the Digital Divide immediately looms large.

Publications as varied as governmental reports, the New York Times (Belleck, 1999; Gates, 1999), USA Today (Lieberman, 1999), Business Week (Stepanek, 1999), and instructional technology newsletters (Potts, 1999) and journals are recognizing and discussing the "Digital Divide"--the disparity of technology acquisition and access according to race, gender, socio-economic and urbanization lines. Instead of technology acquisition and access becoming more equitable as technology improves and proliferates our society, a recent report from the National Telecommunications and Information Administration describes the Digital Divide as a widening "racial ravine" (National Telecommunications and Information Administration [NTIA], 1999). For example, this federal report reveals that Black and Hispanic households are two-fifths as likely to have Internet access as White households. It also reports that across socioeconomic lines those households with incomes greater than $75,000 are *nine times* more likely to have a computer in their home and *twenty times* more likely to have Internet access than those of lower income levels. In recent years, public libraries have risen to the challenge for technology access, however users dependent on the libraries for Internet and computer use face long waiting lists and 15-30 minute time limits for their use of the resources.

The next three sections of this paper present the experiences and perspectives of three adult educators as they examine the occurrence, effects and meaning of the Digital Divide in their specific contexts: adult literacy, continuing higher education and teacher education

ADULT LITERACY

Coordinating community outreach for public television around adult education programs in New York City has given me an opportunity to see many different ABE and literacy initiatives and to become involved in seeking solutions to the Digital Divide. The 1992 National Adult Learning Survey (NALS) found that almost *one quarter of the adult population* in the United States cannot read, write or compute well enough to take a simple test. It is not surprising that a great majority are economically-disadvantaged Americans; this demographic trend has significance in an increasingly technological age. The meaning of literacy has changed dramatically in the last one hundred years. In the early 1900's, a person reading at a fourth-grade level was considered literate. Today, the demands of the current economy, with a proliferation of entry-level jobs in services and information processing, require a literate workforce, and that includes computer and technology competencies.

Given this context for the adult literacy field, I recognize three key issues facing adult learners and their teachers. First is the importance of technology in adult literacy and ABE settings. Technology is already being used even if it is on a smaller scale than in other areas. Metro cards, ATMs, and voice mail menus are all examples of computer technology that adults are using everyday, even if they are not consciously aware of it. People do want to know how to use these technologies and one indication of this is the long lines of those waiting for computer time in our public libraries. Technology has become a huge part of our lives and adults want to be involved in it. It appears that adults' future livelihood will be dependent upon technology skills and these will be linked to literacy skills. Twenty years from now the question will not be whether you can read and write, but how technologically savvy you are. Adults without reading and writing skills will be even further behind and perhaps discarded. This situation will make reading and writing skills even more critical as adults need to learn to handle the "text-heavy" nature of technology. Related to this is also the need to be able to appropriately analyze and use the information they obtain. Critical thinking is essential and it is the only way adult students can evaluate all the information that is and will continue to be over the Internet.

Secondly, the adult literacy field has to assess and determine how to best use technology for maximum benefits in the classroom. Teachers need to really find ways to incorporate technology in their curriculum. In thinking of ways to involve students, teachers themselves should try and experiment with the technology, learning along with their students. They should not be *afraid not to know*, and in sharing their discoveries with students, they more strongly make the point that education is indeed a lifelong process for all of us.

We as adult educators need to take advantage of technology to find resources that can help us, but also teach the students to take advantage of technology for themselves. Just like video helps to graphically explain difficult concepts, other technologies should be explored in adult education settings to see how they can facilitate the learning process. Learners will begin to view technology as a resource that will facilitate their continuing, or lifelong, learning.

Finally, alternative funding sources for equipment, staff development and technical support may be found in many different places. Internet corporation foundations (i.e., Microsoft, Yahoo, AOL, etc.) should be approached for anything related to the Internet and web-based application. In addition, other companies (i.e., phone companies, GE, electric companies, etc.) and private foundations are getting more involved with Internet technologies and may be more attuned to ABE organizations' efforts and needs to fund equipment, staff development and technical support.

Funding source identification and grant writing assistance may be available through several resources such as the Foundation Center (www.fdncenter.org), state departments of education, non-profit organizations, the Literacy Assistance Center in New York (www.lac.org), the National Science Foundation (www.nsf.gov), the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development

/www.ascd.org/services/grantinfo/tips.html), the Community Resource Institute (www.granted.org/grants.html) and the National Urban League (www.nul.org/resource.html) to name a few.

CONTINUING HIGHER EDUCATION

Having been in the field of continuing higher education for 21 years and currently President of the Association of Continuing Higher Education, it is clear from this vantage point that technology is changing the landscape of higher education. As institutions scramble to adopt new and upgrade old technology, find ways to deliver distance learning in a competitive market environment and meet the demands of traditional students who grew up in the information age, technology is being hailed as a positive force within the academic community. Assumptions are being made regarding its advances and contributions. Unfortunately, these assumptions have little to do with the reality of who participates in continuing and higher education and their access to technology. In contrast, a responsible and ethical assessment of the Digital Divide reveals that there are three central issues that need to be addressed: access, populations served and research.

First, we tend to assume all students have equal access to computers, email, voicemail, fax and answering machines. Higher education, while having moved to mass education in the later part of the 20th century, still focuses its attention on the middle class. Universities and colleges are upgrading their technology, encouraging faculty to use technology in their classes to improve their teaching effectiveness, assuming all students, both traditional and non traditional, are eager to use technology to learn and complete their assignments. However, recently in a class with graduate adult learners, one student did not have a VCR at home, another only had computer access at work, and several were not email users. This course required students to view videos for assignments, interact with the professor through email and access the World Wide Web for research. The faculty and the university assumed all students had access and were computer users. But this recent situation raises important questions as we work with adult learners interested in continuing their education, especially if they have been away from formal education for several years. How education is delivered has changed and many students may not be familiar with the new learning technologies, the equipment or the requirements technology demands. This raises several questions for us. Are students who may be under financial strain just by paying tuition obligated to purchase equipment? Are the professor and/or the university obligated to first be aware of disparity, and make accommodations? What training do we owe learners to help them meet the challenges of today's classrooms? This issue opens the door for discussion of the assumptions we make, the obligations we have and the critical need for research, along with an assignment of just what is effective teaching and learning. These discussions have been limited up to now.

Second, although distance education, on-line courses, and learning through the World Wide Web are hailed as the access answer for adult learners, exactly what population is being served here? How will learners with little or no knowledge and experience with technology take advantage of these opportunities? Arguments have been made that learners can find access in community centers, libraries and cyber cafes, arguing that access is not a problem. However, the question needs to be posed, what skills and knowledge do these learners have? How do they learn, first to use the technology, from turning on the computer to understanding the various systems? And then how do they learn to navigate the Internet, the World Wide Web and assess the quality of information available. Professionals working in continuing education must be aware of the diverse populations who are interested in continuing their education, whether it is for a certificate for a nursing assistant, or a certificate in financial management. Older learners may not be as familiar with the newest computer programs and Internet access. Across the economic and social spectrum we may find that inequities in earlier education impacts how adults learn now. Again, as professionals we must not make assumptions, but follow one of the most important principles of adult education. It is crucial we start with our learners, assess their characteristics, understand their needs and be familiar with their level of computer literacy and access. As we begin classes and programs it would be wise to take time to survey our learners and if necessary take time to ensure our students have an equitable opportunity to be successful in the educational event.

Finally, little research has been done on diverse populations who are our learners in continuing and higher education and their interaction with technology. Gender studies have begun to look at women's disparity when it comes to learning and using technology, especially in regards to career advancement. This work can provide us with a research model for other groups, such as older adults, people of color, the economically disadvantaged, physically challenged adult learners and those who have been away from education for some time. This research can provide data to inform our curriculum decisions in equitable ways. It is also important that we follow the current research on teaching and learning effectiveness. We need to understand if the use of such things as multimedia presentations, interactive video, and computer assisted instruction is effective for adult learning. Without research we cannot understand the impact of what we are doing. Today's demands for the latest software and equipment, the so-called clamor for razzle-dazzle presentations, and the overwhelming acceptance of the world wide web, may hinder our reflective processes when it comes to what is good teaching. Adult education and learning has a wealth of research and writing to guide us in our work with our diverse and unique adult learners. We cannot lose sight of it.

The Digital Divide presents us with challenges regarding our adult learners in a variety of continuing education settings. As we assess and work through these challenges we need to be aware of our ethical obligations to all our stakeholders. We are certain to meet critical decision making circumstances where we will need to reflect on the needs of all. To be proactive in this endeavor I recommend we rely on sound adult education principles and practices along with a consideration of the importance of the ethical dimension inherent in our work.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

As an educator responsible for the preparation of adult educators in general and also in educational technology, I also see the profound need to develop equal opportunities for technology access and expertise for adult learners tied to the need for adult educators' continued professional development and teacher education. As we consider staff development in educational technology, several areas need to be considered, including teacher preparation and curriculum development, the adult learner and the technical resources of the programs.

Teacher education and adult education programs need to provide professional development opportunities and formal education in educational technology. These professional development opportunities may be through their own programs, teacher education course work, or through a consortium. An exciting result of such learning is that as teachers learn technology for educational purposes, they can experience a transformation of their perspective of their teaching preparation, practice and expectations (King, 1999) that can impact adult learners and programs.

Based on principles of adult learning and experience teaching adult educators educational technology, the format of such learning experiences should include hands-on activities, demonstration, discussion and project-based learning experiences in teaching and curriculum development (Berge & Collins, 1998; King, 1999; Wilhite, DeCosmos, & Lawler, 1996). In contrast to technology education where learners acquire software skills, these hands-on opportunities for educators also need to include demonstration of, discussion of and participation in the integration of technology into the curriculum and reflection about learning technology for education purposes. One of the strengths of this professional development format is the ability to collaboratively utilize the expertise of adult educators. Another important principle that is interwoven into empowering educational technology professional development is a model of curriculum development and refinement that accounts for the multi-level classroom and their real-life technology resources. Professional development that surveys possible available resources and focuses on lesson and curriculum development is beneficial in preparing educators to integrate technology into their specific adult education programs and classrooms.

Additionally adult learning principles should be utilized in these professional development experiences. Among these are the following important principles: creating a climate of respect, encouraging active participation, building on experience, employing collaborate inquiry, learning for action and empowering participants are especially important (Lawler & King, in press). For instance, developing a climate of respect and recognizing past experiences enables the developer/educator to lessen the anxiety, fear of failure and embarrassment that novice technology users experience and instead build a base of self-confidence in educational technology. Many novice technology users approach technology on a very emotional level and professional development that addresses these needs can result in empowered educators.

Technical resources for adult education programs is another issue that needs to be faced. Regarding teacher education, higher education has resources to be able to offer educators hands-on experiences in labs and for their class work. The more difficult challenge for teacher education is that technology needs to be integrated across the teacher education curriculum and not only evident in educational technology courses. This produces a very large task for faculty development and faculty resources in institutions of higher education. These same resource issues face other adult education programs that need to look for ways to provide technology for teacher preparation, research and classroom use. For funding, adult education programs can explore alternative sources in public grants and private foundations, in addition to corporate partnerships and shared resources with other programs. (See the list of web resources earlier in this paper.) For on-going technical resources and support, Internet technologies offer some possibilities. Listservs, web-based bulletin boards and hardware and software company web sites can all be rich sources of needed information and trouble-shooting. These same technologies can be used within programs and across programs to link adult educators for the purposes of collaborative problem solving, sharing information and continued professional development. All of these suggestions can serve to create professional development experiences that will give educators the skills and materials that assist in increasing adult learners' technology understanding and use and thereby help to bridge the Digital Divide.

CONCLUSION

As we consider the many ways that the Digital Divide is of concern in adult education, we are encouraged to find many educators and administrators interested in helping to "bridge the divide." Along with the recommendations that we offer here, several recent initiatives reveal that business and community organizations are seeking solutions. Community Training Centers (www.ctcnet.org) have been established where technology resources are made available to the public. PowerUp (www.powerup.org), a program funded by the Case Foundation and Gateway, is endeavoring to provide technology, funding, trained personnel, in-kind support and other resources to America's young people (Smith, 1999). The PowerUp initiative includes volunteers and is linked with existing community youth programs. These initiatives can serve as encouragement and examples to additional potential partners and adult educators, but are not our conclusive answer. The adult education community needs to seek out similar resources that will specifically bridge the divide for adults. Two readily available resources that adult educators can use to learn more about the issues and to introduce the Digital Divide to others is are the two-part video series of the same title and the supporting web site: www.pbs.org/digitaldivide. The Digital Divide looms large and needs to be continuously and creatively confronted with equipment, opportunities, on-going instruction and support. In our distinctive sectors of adult education, we have the opportunity to be "the bridge" for equipment, programs and learners.

REFERENCES

Belleck, P. (1999, September 22). What price will be paid by those not on the net? *The New York Times*, p. G12.

Berge, Z., & Collins, M. (1998). *Wired together: Computer-mediated communication in K-12. Vol. 3: Teacher education and professional development.* Cresskill, NJ: Hampton.

Elias, J. L., & Merriam, S. B. (1995). *Philosophical foundations of adult education* (2nd ed). Malabar, FL: Krieger.

Gates, H. L. (1999, October 31). One Internet, two nations. *The New York Times*, p. 15.

Goldberg, B. (1999). *Overcoming high-tech anxiety.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kett, J. (1994). *The pursuit of knowledge under difficulties: From self-improvement to adult education in America.* Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

King, K. P. (1999). Unleashing technology in the classroom: What adult basic education teachers and organizations need to know. *Adult Basic Education: An Interdisciplinary Journal for Adult Literacy Educators, 9*, 162-175.

Lawler, P. A., & King, K. P. (in press). *Planning for effective faculty development: Using adult learning strategies.* Malabar, FL: Krieger.

Lieberman, D. (1999, July 9). Net hangs out of the reach of have-nots. *USA Today*, p. B2.

Merriam, S. B., & Caffarella, R. S. (1999). *Learning in adulthood: A comprehensive guide* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

National Telecommunications and Information Administration (NTIA). (1999). *Falling through the Net III: Defining the digital divide* [On-line]. Available: http://www.ntia.doc.gov/ntiahome/fttn99/contents.html

Potts, C. H. (1999, Winter). The digital divide: Social justice in the information age [On-line]. *Issues in Education and Technology, 1*. Available: http://www.centerx.gseis.ucla.edu/x/projects/xtech/dd.htm

Rosen, D. (1998). *Driver education for the information superhighway* (Literacy Leader Fellowship Program Reports, Vol. 2, No. 2). Boston: National Institute for Literacy.

Smith, G. (1999, November 9). *Power to the kids: And Internet access for all* [On-line]. Available: http://www.abcnews.go.com/sections/tech/DailyNews/power991109.html

Stepanek, M. (1999, October 4). A small town reveals America's digital divide [On-line]. *Business Week*. Available: http://www.businessweek.com/1999/99_40/b3649027.htm

Wagner, D. A., & Venezky, R. L. (1999). Adult literacy: The next generation. *Educational Researcher, 28*(1), 21-29.

Wilhite, S. C., DeCosmo, A. D., & Lawler, P. A. (1996, October). Faculty as adult learners: Implications for faculty development initiatives. *The Eastern Adult, Continuing, and Distance Education Research Conference Proceedings*. University Park, PA: Penn State University. [CDROM file wilhite.doc]

Kathleen P. King, Ed.D., Assistant Professor, Fordham University, 113 W 60th St., Rm. 1102, New York, NY 10023. Kpking@Fordham.edu

Ayla Tiago, Manager of Adult Learning, KQED, Education Network, 2601 Mariposa St., San Francisco, CA. 94110. Atiago@kqed.org

Patricia A. Lawler, Ed.D., Associate Professor, Widener University, One University Place, Chester, PA 19013-5772. Patricia.A.Lawler@Widener.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Symposia

PENNSYLVANIA ACTION RESEARCH NETWORK (PAARN): SYNOPSIS OF HIGHLIGHTS OF FINDINGS FROM FIVE YEARS OF PRACTITIONER RESEARCH IN PENNSYLVANIA

Gary William Kuhne

ABSTRACT

Since 1995, The Pennsylvania Action Research Network has helped practitioners throughout the State to conduct systematic methods for problem-solving in ABE, GED, and ESL programs. Projects have been undertaken in literacy agencies, community colleges, correctional facilities, adult learning centers and in one hospital. Issues addressed include recruitment, retention, administration, student achievement and outcomes, ESL, diagnostic and student placement, special needs, and parenting skills. This paper provides an overview of those monographs. It does not critically examine the research, but does report the different methods and findings of the researchers. Action research is considered qualitative research. Although no claim is made for generalizability for these research findings, each monograph can be illustrative and instructive for practitioners facing similar issues.

INTRODUCTION

In 1995, the Pennsylvania Department of Education created the Pennsylvania Action Research Network (PAARN). The objective was to help ABE, GED, and ESL practitioners to develop better problem-posing/problem-solving skills using action research as a method of inquiry. The project also intended to use the new knowledge created to both discover and validate the best methods, most promising strategies, and most effective techniques to improve daily practice. PAARN instructors trained practitioners from various literacy agencies in the core techniques of action research, using monthly training sessions to define problems, plan interventions, find baselines, determine criteria for success, design data collection techniques, and oversee the implementation and evaluation of projects. The sessions also gave opportunities for participants to discuss and share ideas. Monographs were produced on all projects by the practitioner-researchers and are available through the Pennsylvania Department of Education. PAARN produced 20 monographs in the first year (1995-1996), 27 in the second (1996-1997), 19 in the third (1997-1998) and 23 in the fourth (1998-1999). There are 27 additional projects being designed and implemented during the current year (1999-2000), but these will not be examined in this report. Many questions and issues have been addressed over the five years of PAARN, including recruitment, retention, administration, ESL, student achievement and outcomes, diagnostic and student placement, special needs and parenting skills.

RECRUITMENT

Of the 89 monographs, seven (8%) were on recruitment issues. Action strategies developed included submission of names from newly enrolled and past students, direct referrals from post secondary schools, open houses, early identification of new prison inmates who did not graduate high school, student questionnaires for their opinions, and community involvement. Several representative examples of these action research projects are examined to demonstrate the application of the approach to important practitioner problems.

Narbut and Mando (1995-96) initiated a cost-effective, two phase program to increase enrollments in an ABE program. They asked all enrolled students to submit two names of persons whom they felt could benefit from the program. All submitted names were contacted and encouraged to enroll. They also held an open house to which students could bring a friend. Enrollment increased by 88%. Kreh (1995-96) fostered better interaction between agencies and increased student referrals through hosting a luncheon to better explain her agency's programs.

Smith (1996-97) increased enrollments and the number completing the GED increased through identifying inmates in a correctional institution who did not have their high school diploma, holding a brief personal interview with them after being in prison one month, and encouraging them to enroll in GED programs. Kramer (1996-97) found that the computer lab at her agency was not being used by students. Interviewing students revealed a lack of awareness of lab availability and fear of computers, problems resolved through a basic skills computer class. In a successful effort to raise more money and manpower for a yearly fund raising event, Novy (1996-97) spoke to the Chamber of Commerce and Rotary, sent letters to area businesses and entertainers, and surveyed staff and volunteers on how they could help with the program.

RETENTION

Retention was an issue addressed in 19 monographs (21%). Action strategies developed included fine-tuning orientations, offering extra workshops, implementing goal-setting and problem solving strategies, conducting cooperative learning sessions, involving mentor and staff contact, combining interviews and creative writing assignments, forming support groups, comparing traditional GED to family literacy GED programs, offering extrinsic rewards, offering additional courses, and providing weekly progress meetings. Several representative examples of these action research projects are examined to demonstrate the application of the approach to important practitioner problems,

Snider (1997-98) increased student retention by 6% and encouraged better student goal setting through developing a uniform orientation program that included a presentation and handbook. O'Leary (1996-97) more then doubled the number of students retaking the General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB) through providing workshops instead of relying on independent study materials. Fulton (1996-97) positively increased student motivation among female inmates seeking to continue studies in the GED program at a jail by implementing an 8-week goal setting curriculum. Baylor (1996-97) conducted cooperative learning sessions in ABE reading and writing classes that fostered significant increases in interaction among the group members. Kelly (1996-97) found that GED students liked learning in groups, that the group approach created a relaxed atmosphere and kept them on track with assignments. Schmalzried (1995-96 & 1996-97) significantly impacted retention using bi-weekly contacts by mentors with learners to discuss and encourage attendance at tutoring sessions. Jones (1996-97) discovered and overcame important barriers in her GED class through the use of interviews addressing academic and personal concerns in the learners. She also used creative writing assignments in which students were asked to write essays describing their reasons for dropping out of school and the effect these have had on their lives, present goals, and decisions to work toward their GED. Despines (1995-96) found that students attending a support group meeting every two weeks during a twelve-week semester had an 80% better attendance rate. Despines (1996-97) also found that retention increased by 34% after initiating policies on dress, attendance, and disruptive behaviors. The policies were presented at the student orientation. Fetsko (1995-96) found that extrinsic rewards (trip tickets) were not effective in increasing attendance in GED classes, while Scott (1995-96) found that staff support contact with students through phone calls and questionnaires did little to reduce drop-out rate. Frankenburger (1998-99) contacted drop-outs of her agency's GED program through phone calls and letters and found 25% returned to class.

ADMINISTRATION

Administrative issues were studied by sixteen action research inquiries (17%). Action strategies developed included researching the agency's impact on students, revising forms, reducing waiting lists, volunteer recruitment, tutor training, developing manuals, improving reports, staff empowerment, staff retention, and resource usage. Several representative examples of these action research projects are examined to demonstrate the application of the approach to important practitioner problems.

Urey (1998-99) redesigned a student tracking form to improve accuracy for data submission to LitPro and to the Pennsylvania Department of Education using suggestions from teachers and counselors and comparisons of forms from other institutions. The resulting form was more efficient and accurate. Miller (1995-96) sought to reduce long student waiting lists by using small group instruction as opposed to traditional one-on-one tutoring. Although the waiting list did not decrease, the number of students sewed increased and the ratio of active students to waiting students did decrease. Papciak (1996-97) wanted to determine the effectiveness of just-in-time training for those unable to participate in in-service training. After distributing "Self Directed Learning Packages" to eight tutors, she found they were apprehensive about using the packages and desired more interaction with instructors. Questionnaires and interviews of supervisors, instructors, and tutors led Roles (1998-1999) to develop a manual for the tutors that was easier to use, less confusing, and saved time. Thompson (1995-96) increased the rate of return on monthly progress reports from tutors by changing the format of the questions, adding a section for the students to complete, and making the responsibility of turning in the forms a cooperative effort by tutors and students. Lemansky (1997-1998) greatly reduced staff turnover in her agency by developing questionnaires to find why her agency could not retain part-time personnel, the findings of which led to changes in procedures. Madgar (1998-99) successfully eliminated teacher tardiness and improved individualized classroom instruction through implementing a policy manual and in-service training for teachers. Spencer and Plantz (1997-98) successfully increased student use of a career resource center through developing a checklist of career choice activities to help students understand which resources could be used in their job searching.

STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT AND OUTCOMES

Twenty-four (28%) studies were concerned with student outcomes and concentrated on: critical reading and thinking skills, cooperative-learning, metacognitive teaching-learning processes, increasing vocabulary, incentives, goal-setting, eliminating finger-counting, adult RIP Program, self-esteem, student progress, publication of a prison newsletter, computer-assisted learning, and pick-and-choose training sessions. Several representative examples of these action research projects are examined to demonstrate the application of the approach to important practitioner problems.

McAghon's (1995-96) successfully improved students' critical thinking and reading awareness skills through forming cooperative groups in which members discussed their thoughts, answers to test questions, and reading selections. Goerlitz (1996-97) introduced political cartoons and newspaper editorials in his GED social studies class to increase critical thinking skills. He observed that the cartoons and editorials generated much discussion and that the students demonstrated increase awareness of current events and political figures. Anthony (1998-99) studied the metacognitive teaching-learning process pioneered by Dr. Donald Meichenbaum, on deaf and hard of hearing adult learners in a deaf center's ABE Program. He discovered that students became more interested in reading the newspaper, in pursuing English literacy, and relating American Sign Language to English. Positive impact on student attitudes and beliefs about learning was also observed. Yates (1996-97 & 1997-98), using flashcards and audio-taped words to increase students' vocabulary, found that increased usage of the audio-tapes and cards led to increased recognition and retention of the words. Kriley (1998-99) used a vocabulary building project to prepare students for the General Aptitude Test Battery. Students were given a pretest of the "250 Most Commonly Used Words on Standardized Tests" and then put into vocabulary building teams. After fifteen, 30-minute sessions of peer study, students increased their vocabulary recognition between 23% to 58%. Snider (1998-99) was successful in building student goal-setting through combining a revised handout and the use of personal experiences and humor when explaining goal-setting strategies during student orientation sessions. Tuminello (1995-96) improved student awareness of academic progress, as well as assisted their setting of academic goals, through the use of a portfolio system in her ABE class, including a checklist of reading and writing topics, a writing folder for writing assignments and rough drafts; and student journals. Zamierowski (1995-96) succeeded in encourage more reading outside of the classroom in developmentally disabled adults through making a collection of books more accessible to the students and providing an incentive gift to those who participated in borrowing the books, Wilson (1997-98) successfully encouraged reading among her GED students through taking them on two visits to a local bookstore and providing gift certificates of $15 at each visit. King (1996-97) found that developing learning resources on language barriers, cultural barriers, self-worth versus potential, communication, self-esteem awareness, and cultural diversity greatly increased student self-esteem. Wright (1997-98) found a meaningful correlation between regular attendance, consistent dialogue, and encouragement, and increased GED scores. Grecco (1996-97) discovered that using self-awareness materials in her Job Skills class at a county jail increased the students' ability to obtain and retain a job suited to their job skills upon their release. Wilson (1997-96) introduced computer-assisted learning into her Workplace Literacy math class to increase voluntary computer use and math scores. She found learners averaged an increase in math skills of more than two grade levels, as well as saw increased interaction and a feeling of empowerment with computer literacy.

ESL

ESL was the focus of eight (9%) monographs. Action strategies developed included using videotapes, using classroom tests, evaluating progress using audio-tapes, mixing students with native English-speaking students, goal-setting, teaching grammatical structure, and creating phonemic awareness, Several representative examples of these action research projects are examined to demonstrate the application of the approach to important practitioner problems.

Davis (1998-99) found improved vocabulary, attitudes, confidence, reading ability, and conversation ability from the implementation of videotapes in her ESL classroom with a highly multi-cultural group of students. Moon (1995-96) looked into the relationship between testing and the students' sense of progress. Since many ESL courses are not graded, quizzes or unit tests are not given. She began giving weekly quizzes, designing them with success in mind. 54% of the students felt the tests gave them an increased sense of progress, Miller (1996-97) formulated a set of questions for tutors to ask their students that would create ten minutes of speech to be recorded on audio-tape to evaluate ESL students' progress in oral communication. Miller concluded that the procedure was simple and efficient. In an effort to increase his ESL students' English conversation skills, Johnston (1996-97) joined his class with an ABE reading/writing class for at least one half hour, once a week for ten weeks. All the students felt that the mixing helped them. Zangari (1998-99) successfully increased the use of learning strategies, and fostered self-directedness in learning among participants in international English training program. Learners were asked to keep journals in which they identified language learning goals, created strategies to achieve the goals, and assessed their progress. Through the experience, students gained confidence, improved language abilities, and learned about learning. Jackson (1998-99) incorporated short term (daily or weekly) and long term (greater than three weeks) goal setting strategies in her ESL curriculum. A questionnaire to determine more specific goals than "to learn better English" was developed. Students were asked to keep journals. Personal interviews were conducted. Jackson observed increased confidence in the students. They were also creating their own instructional education plan, since their goals were different from the instructors. Shenk (1998-99) undertook the teaching of grammatical structures to improve proficiency levels in the advanced ESL classroom. Modest gains were found through teaching comparatives, superlatives, and equatives. Barton (1998-99) included 10-minute phonemic awareness exercises in her ESL curriculum twice weekly for three months to help the students' learning progress by understanding the structure of the English language. She observed an emerging understanding of language structure, improved spelling, and better management of words and sounds in class.

DIAGNOSTIC AND STUDENT PLACEMENT

Diagnostic and Student Placement was studied by six researchers (7%). Action strategies developed included revising forms, using concept maps and criterion-referenced tests, comparing two GEE) practice tests, and comparing the Test of Adult Basic Education to the Comprehensive Adult Student Assessment System. Several representative examples of these action research projects are examined to demonstrate the application of the approach to important practitioner problems.

Edmonston (1998-99) developed a new Individualized Educational Plan (IEP) form to improve the evaluation and planning process for tutors in the ABE/GED program at her agency. Those tutors with the competed form were able to begin the instructional process sooner because they were able to determine where the learners needed help. Finn-Miller (1998-99) revised the Post-test Evaluation Form at her agency to improve the quality and quantity of information from students concerning accomplishments, goals, and concerns. Results revealed that some questions did elicit more in-depth information, while others did not. These results along with input from the staff will be used to revise the form again. Kaminski (1996-97) implemented level-specific concept maps and criterion-referenced tests to gain a more accurate perception of students' capabilities than TABE reading scores. She found that the maps and tests did give a better overview of what was learned in the program and diagnosis of those needing promotion or retention in the ABE classroom. O'Leary (1997-98) compared the full length GED Evaluative Post Test to the Official Half-Length GED Practice test and found that the Evaluative Post Test was a more accurate predictor for the GED test. Nagel (1998-99) compared the *Comprehensive Adult Student Assessment System* (CASAS) with the *Test of Adult Basic Education* (TABE) to determine the best assessment instrument. The criteria employed were: 1) usefulness in planning individual instruction, 2) impact on student test anxiety, 3) impact on student retention, 4) communicating results to students, 5) length of time to administer, 6) use of scoring, 7) acceptability to Pennsylvania Department of Education (PDE), and 8) predictability for GED testing. Preference to the TABE was indicated through feedback from students, instructors, administrators, and PDE Bureau of Adult Basic and Literacy Education, because more diagnostic and prescriptive information was received which is helpful in planning instruction. While the TABE was a better indicator for GED testing, the life skills-centered CASAS caused less student anxiety and was shorter to administer. Finn-Miller (1998-99) investigated why students in a family literacy program had inconsistent results with the CASAS while showing gains on the TABE and passing the GED. She found that instructors were not addressing CASAS competencies because instructors found the CASAS diagnostic profile and curriculum did not provide guidance or teaching strategies suitable for their students.

SPECIAL NEEDS

Four (3%) looked into special needs situations. Action strategies developed included testing, extra volunteer tutors in the classroom, and educational intervention of stroke impaired patients. These examples of these action research projects are examined to demonstrate the application of the approach to important practitioner problems.

Zamierowski (1995-96) compared *The Woodcock Test of Reading Mastery,* to *The Briqance Diaanostic Inventory of Basic Skills* to see which test would show greater progress in word identification and comprehension for participants with developmental challenges. The results revealed that the Woodcock Test showed greater gains in word recognition. Giles (1996-97) used student volunteer tutors to give one-on-one instruction to the special needs students in her classroom. Evaluations from the students and tutors revealed that students were able to complete classroom tasks and benefited from individual attention. Anderson (1995-96) wanted to provide educational intervention to stroke impaired patients to see if they could make gains in reading comprehension and word recognition. Problems arose when the hospital withdrew its commitment to provide tutoring space for fear of liability issues and the project was unable to continue. Palmiscno (1995-96) successfully increased the number of words deaf students learn in a week's time by weekly increasing the number of vocabulary words without the students' knowledge. By the end of a month their production level increased by 40%.

PARENTING

Three (3%) of the studies tried to improve parental involvement in their children's education. Action strategies developed included evaluation tools, independent study materials, and incentives. These examples of these action research projects are examined to demonstrate the application of the approach to important practitioner problems.

Day (1997-98) created a tool to evaluate the effectiveness of The Family Action Network, a program designed to improve parenting skills in the participants. Data was collected from questionnaires given to parents on the onset of the program and then after three months of weekly visits from staff. Telephone interviews were also conducted. Another project, by Garcia (1997-98), provided educational materials to parents for independent study sessions with their children in an after-school program to encourage parents to take more responsibility as opposed to depending on staff to work with the children. Feedback from the parents concerning children's grades, study habits and behavior indicated increased involvement at home. Elsleger (1998-99) successfully increased parental involvement in their children's educational development by offering the incentive of a group picnic to those families completing parent-child assignments over a three-month period.

OTHERS

Two other studies (2%) focused on increasing correspondence between incarcerated fathers and their children, and lowering the reading level of instructions sheets for hospital emergency room patient. Dessoye (1996-97) increased communication between incarcerated fathers and their children by encouraging participants to send their children letters, books, magazine and newspaper articles, and cartoon strips. The men were not only reading what they sent but also were involved in making selections. Children writing to dads increased 75%. In an effort to decrease the number of repeat patients seen in a hospital emergency room, Datcher (1996-97) developed and implemented information sheets written at lower reading levels (ninth grade and lower). Follow-up phone calls showed that failing to understand the instructions dropped from 10-11.7% to 5% with the new forms.

(All of the monographs referenced in this paper are available online through the ABLE site at the Pennsylvania Department of Education, http://www.paadulted.org, or by ordering by phoning ADVANCE at (717) 787-5532.)

Dr. Gary Kuhne, Assistant Professor, Adult Education Program, Penn State University, P.O. Box 189, North East, PA. Gwk1@psu.edu

Selected representatives of these action research projects will also participate in the symposium.

I wish to acknowledge the major contributions made by Dr. B. Allan Quigley, St. Francis Xavier University, Nova Scotia, in the original vision and early coordination of PAARN. I also want to thank Debbie Doyle for her work in synthesizing PAARN project findings.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, March 16-18, 2000.

ER- AERC

REFEREED ROUNDTABLES

Eastern Regional
Adult Education Research Conference

March 16-18, 2000

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Roundtables

ASSESSING STUDENT PROGRESS TOWARD THE EFF STANDARDS: ISSUES AND LESSONS TO DATE

Brenda Bell
Peggy McGuire

ABSTRACT

Equipped for the Future (EFF), the national standards-based system reform initiative for adult education and lifelong learning, has developed sixteen content standards which define the core knowledge and skills adults need to effectively carry out their roles as parents, citizens, and workers. The current stage of EFF research is focused on the development of performance standards for these standards. As part of this development effort, teachers are providing detailed descriptions of adult learner performance toward each standard. This data will be used as the basis for constructing a performance continuum for each EFF Standard. The resulting continua will support the identification of level descriptors for all sixteen EFF Standards.

SUMMARY

Equipped for the Future is engaged in developing an Assessment Framework for the EFF Content Standards. Phases of this stage of research and development include defining the key dimensions of a continuum of performance; developing a continuum of performance for each standard; identifying currently available or appropriate tools, or developing new tools to assess performance of each standard for the range of assessment purposes; and developing a broad qualifications framework that focuses on integrated performance across standards.

IDENTIFYING KEY DIMENSIONS OF PERFORMANCE

To identify a theory-based set of dimensions of performance, the EFF development team reviewed other frameworks that have attempted to define a broad continuum of performance, including the National Adult Literacy Survey (NALS) and the qualifications frameworks developed by Australia, England, Scotland, South Africa and New Zealand. The team also looked at data from EFF field development sites and research reports from cognitive science studies on expertise and transfer. The resulting analysis helped identify four dimensions of performance that are useful in describing and discriminating between performances at points along a continuum -- from one end with adults with very few years of formal education and low English literacy skills to the other end with adults with many years of formal education and advanced degrees. The four dimensions of performance identified for use in developing a continuum that does not isolate adult literacy students on a special, developmental continuum (separated from movement along the mainstream path to mastery) are:

- Depth and breadth of the knowledge base
- Fluency and ease of performance
- Independence of performance
- Range of conditions for performance

DEVELOPING A CONTINUUM OF PERFORMANCE FOR EACH EFF STANDARD

During the 1999-2000 academic year, practitioners in fifteen adult basic education programs in five states are engaged in detailed observation of student performance toward the EFF standards, using the Performance Framework for EFF Standards (figure 1) and an accompanying template. Data collected through this process will be used to develop clear and specific descriptions of adult performance for each standard along a continuum from beginner to expert, in terms both of skill development and how adults can apply the skill in everyday life. The result will be EFF level descriptors that correspond to National Reporting System levels and other external benchmarks related to employability and skill standards.

In the Performance Framework, the four dimensions are embedded in categories reflecting how teachers think about planning and instruction: Task, Context, Knowledge Base, and Performance. These categories are framed as questions similar to those found in an observation rubric so that they are more immediately useful for planning instruction, teaching and evaluating as well as for detailed documentation of these activities.

Performance Framework for EFF Standards

In order to insure that adult learners can use the EFF skills to act flexibly, with a range of options and choices, to meet the goals in their lives, teachers and learners need to pay attention to the following aspects of learner performance:

What kinds of tasks can learners carry out?	In what contexts can learners perform?	**What do learners know?**	**How well can learners perform?**
1. How complex is the task? 2. How familiar are learners with the task?	1.How familiar are learners with the context? 2.In how many different situations can learners perform? 3.How much risk is involved in the situation? How high are the stakes?	1.Do learners have vocabulary related to the skill? Related to the subject area? 2.Do learners have content knowledge related to the skill? Related to the subject area? 3.Do learners have strategies for organizing content knowledge?	1.How fluently can learners perform? How much effort is required? *How consistently do learners start and finish, getting to the desired outcome?* *How well are barriers controlled or overcome?* 2.How independently can learners perform? *How much help is needed from others?* *How much initiative is shown in getting started?* *How often do learners generate their own strategies to complete tasks?*

Using a template with generic descriptors for five ranges of performance, the data will be placed at points along the continuum for each standard. The first round of data collection using this Framework is underway and preliminary observations will be discussed during the roundtable.

The issues already identified in this step of developing a national assessment framework are complex, in both practical and theoretical ways.

- How can practitioners communicate to stakeholders what an adult at any point along a continuum knows and can do? and how well ?
- What kinds and combinations of tools will be useful to practitioners in documenting and assessing adult performance?
- How can in-class assessments be linked to external measures of competence?
- How do we define levels of performance that are not based solely on academic conceptions of beginning, proficient, and expert (or on K-12 grade levels) but that are anchored in external benchmarks related to what an adult needs to know and be able to do to accomplish real life goals?

By addressing these questions, EFF hopes to assist the field expand what can be measured, so that adult literacy and basic education programs can demonstrate their contribution to achieving the results that matter to adults as family members, workers, and community members.

Brenda Bell, EFF Research Coordinator, Associate Director, Center for Literacy Studies, University of Tennessee, 600 Henley Street, Suite 312, Knoxville, TN 37996

Peggy McGuire, EFF Assessment Coordinator, 4947 Rubican Street, Philadelphia, PA 19144

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

THE SHELL MODEL OF ADULT EDUCATION

Bradley R. Burger

ABSTRACT

Mankind seeks to explain its actions through the physical and biological worlds. Through the application of biological principles, systems theorists attempt to understand the complex nature of organizations. Energized through a synergy of chemistry and philosophy, the Shell Model of Adult Education provides an alternative framework to the current understanding of adult education philosophies.

SUMMARY

Shortly after the turn of the century, physicists sought of explain the nature of the atom. Physicists knew that the atom was made of positively-charged particles called protons, uncharged particles called neutron, and negatively-charged particles called electrons; however, they did not understand the relationship that existed between the particles. Danish theoretical physicist Niels Bohr proposed his model of the atom's structure (Brown & LeMay, 1988). Bohr suggested that the protons and neutrons existed in a tightly held core called a nucleus. The nucleus was essential to the stability of the atom. Around the centrally located nucleus, the electrons revolved in definite orbits (shells). The farther the electrons traveled from the nucleus, the more unstable the atom became. The Bohr Model of 1913 continues to provide us with the most easily understood explanation of atomic structure.

The structure of Bohr's atom serves as the framework to build a perspective transforming view of adult education. The philosophical streams of adult education do not serve many masters; they serve one. The streams are part of an integrated unit, which can at optimal performance, move learners from necessary foundational level to a higher transformative level.

The heart of any adult education effort must contain the essence of the liberal traditionalist stream. The adult learner must be exposed to the historical and philosophical perspective of any field or issue. Failure to address this issue will inevitably result in the learner returning to the starting point of his/her education. Any educational endeavor that does not begin here will by design or accident return here to seek its stability and roots. As the electron of education revolves about the axis of liberal traditionalism, it moves in and out of pedagogical and andragogical methodologies. First, stability is gained in the teacher-directed region of pedagogy, then the learner transitions to the learner-directed area of andragogy (Elias & Merriam, 1995). Once core issues are mastered, the learner moves to a higher-energy state in the shell of progressive pragmatism.

The progressive shell requires the skill acquisition of issues addressed in the liberal traditionalist shell. Again the learner revolves about the axis, moving from the pedagogical region to the andragogical region. The learner will explore problem solving within the context of the current system. After skill acquisition is completed, the learner is directed or directs himself/herself to the next energy state known as the radial shell.

The highest and most unstable energy state is the radial shell. The radial shell encourages the learner to change the current system. Since the radial shell is the farthest from the nucleus, its attraction to the nucleus is proportionately less than the other shells. Like a covalent bond, the learners of the outer shell often share a bond with forces outside of adult education to gain greater stability.

Just as energy is required of the learner to move to the next energy shell, moving back to a previous shell will give off the energy to the outside environment. Learners who begin in the outer shell, more often than not, eventually find that they must return to the nucleus.

In summary, the Shell Model of Adult Education seeks to explain adult education as a complex, dynamic structure that services the educational needs of all adult learners. It tears down the walls of compartmentalization caused by the current stream model of adult education. Just as the systems theorists sought to explain complex organizations through the application of biological principles, adult educators can explain our diverse field through the application of physical properties of the universe. The Bohr Model of the atom provides a concise but complex framework for us to understand our field.

REFERENCES

Brown, T. L., & LeMay, H. E., Jr. (1988). *Chemistry: The central science* (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Elias, J. L., & Merriam, S. B. (1995). *Philosophical foundations of adult education* (2nd ed.). Malabar, FL: Kreiger.

Bradley R. Burger, Director of Information and Education, Goodwill Industries of Pittsburgh, Inc., 2600 East Carson Street, Pittsburgh, PA 15203.

Special thanks to Dr. Gary Kuhne for his consistent support during my graduate studies.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Roundtables

THE ROAD LESS TRAVELED:
LEARNERS' PERSPECTIVES IN A CROSS-FUNCTIONAL WORK GROUP

Marjorie H. Carkhuff

ABSTRACT

The primary purpose of this study was to determine the meaning of learning for participants while working in a facilitated cross-functional work group within the nursing organization of a large multi-facility healthcare organization. This examination summarizes results from the five-month study related to the integrated perspective of professional learning. These findings propose use of facilitated cross-functional work groups as an opportunity to support professional learning while creating new work products in the healthcare workplace.

SUMMARY

What becomes important in the discussion of professional growth in the workplace is the whole issue of learning. From the adult education perspective, learning is central to developing staff personally or professionally. Given the continuing need for creativity in how we capture learning for professionals and still maintain the output of work, a look at professional growth and what might enhance the relationship of learning while working within an organization is relevant.

BACKGROUND AND RESEARCH DESIGN

In dynamic workplace environments where organizations are fighting cost containment such as healthcare delivery systems, this creates particular challenges from an Adult Education perspective for the preparation of staff and the possibility of utilizing this forum as a learning experience for personal, professional and organizational benefit. In the ideal workplace situation, adult learning labeled Continuing Professional Education (CPE) programming enable practitioners to keep up to date with new knowledge, maintain and enhance their competence, progress from novice to skilled practitioners, receive advancements in their careers, and even progress into different or collateral fields (Queeney, 1996). In fact, most often in the healthcare workplace there are more skill development or training activities to satisfy performance based issues or new technology competencies. I looked to the reflective learning theory literature to provide a foundation for the study (Dechant, Marsick, & Kasl, 1993; Mezirow, 1990). Recent theories of learning from experience (Bateson, 1989); and research on reflective practice (Boud & Walker, 1992) help to inform this study from a contextual approach.

Following Denzin and Lincoln (1994), a qualitative, phenomenological method was selected as the appropriate methodology to make sense out of their work group experience. The main question for the study was: What are the meanings of learning within a cross-functional work group? The particular cross-functional work group called the Nursing Competency Work Group (or NCWG) was selected based on the criteria of an effective group (Goodman, 1986) and included five female Caucasian participants from five varying levels of job title, status and work assignment ranging from four to over 18 years of work experience. The group task was to write competencies for the nursing organization that would be reviewed and recommended by the Clinical Nursing Council within the comprehensive healthcare delivery system. The data collection was divided into two phases. Phase One included: (a) pilot interview and subsequent refinement of the interview tool and (b) an initial sixty-minute interview regarding social-biographical information and past work group experiences; ten work group observations with field notes, and document analysis of all agendas, reports, and meeting minutes. I attended all work group meetings over the five-month period, took field notes, and tape-recorded all interviews. I related this to the initial interview information to validate information gathered, and to plan for clarification and additional questions based on the observations during the ninety-minute Phase Two interview. All Phase One and Phase Two data were analyzed in light of the multiple data sources in a continuous process in that I sorted, coded, and interpreted on an ongoing basis throughout the five-month period. I verified the authenticity of the data analysis through triangulation and use of multiple sources. Taken together these sources provided a holistic picture of the work group experience.

FINDINGS AND SIGNIFICANCE

This work provides support to the premise that adult learners engage in learning through problem-oriented applications. The following themes speak to the different aspects of this learning relating to the professional realm: (a) development of the organizational self; (b) applying the group learning experience to professional work; (c) developing member equality; and (d) understanding work as a value-added process. These findings offer reinforcement of the significant complexity of situated cognition and its relationship to learning engagement and meaning making. What is different from other research is the finding around understanding work as a value-added process. This suggests that issues of value and non-value-added activities within work group settings have a relationship between the valuing and non-valuing of work group contributions and the consequential bridge between personal and professional worlds of learning. Further research should explore this connection and inter-relationship. The significance of this study was in examining the working-professional learning transaction from the adult learner's perspective. This research contributes to the body of research of situated learning in that the learning was a consequence of work process interacting with the affordances and constraints of position and role both internal and external to the work group, and the interesting dynamic of commitment to the problem resolution through a common value of improving patient care (Carkhuff, 1999).

REFERENCES

Bateson, M. C. (1989). *Peripheral visions: Learning along the way.* New York: HarperCollins.

Boud, D., & Walker, D. (1992). In the midst of experience: Developing a model to aid learners and facilitators. In J. Mulligan & C. Griffin (Eds.), *Empowerment through experiential learning* (pp. 163-169). London: Kogan Page.

Carkhuff, M. (1999). Enemies or learning partners? The interplay of power and learning in a cross-boundary work group. In D. Smith (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 40th Annual Adult Education Research Conference* (pp. 68-72). DeKalb, IL: Northern Illinois University.

Dechant, K., Marsick, V. J., & Kasl, E. (1993). Toward a model of team learning. *Studies in Continuing Education, 15*(1), 1-14.

Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (1994). Entering the field of qualitative research. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 1-17). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Goodman, P. S., & Associates. (1986). *Designing effective work groups.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mezirow, J., & Associates. (1990). *Fostering critical reflection in adulthood: A guide to transformative and emancipatory learning.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Queeney, D. S. (1996). Continuing professional education. In R. L. Craig (Ed.), *The ASTD Training & Development Handbook* (4th ed., pp. 698-724). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Marjorie H. Carkhuff, D.Ed., RN, Owner & Principal Consultant, Carkhuff Associates, PO Box 20578, York, PA 17402. carkhuff@gte.net

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Roundtables

FRAMEWORK FOR WORK-BASED FOUNDATION SKILLS

Priscilla Carman
Heidi Watson

INTRODUCTION

Pennsylvania's Unified Plan for Workforce Investment calls for an integrated system and unified approach for connecting workforce and economic development with educational attainment. With new legislation in place, agencies must work together to identify and measure the skills and knowledge that workers need to function effectively in Pennsylvania workplaces. Basic, or foundation, skills must be clearly defined and agreed upon by all partners involved in workforce development. This project will develop an employer-validated, unified framework of work-based foundation skills and related products.

The framework project will guide education providers when developing programs that help adults develop the skills they need to function effectively Pennsylvania's workplaces. All project work is being conducted in conjunction with the Bureau of Adult Basic and Literacy Education and Team Pennsylvania/CareerLink staff to ensure that processes and outcomes are aligned with Pennsylvania's Unified Plan for Workforce Investment.

THE FRAMEWORK DEVELOPMENT

The Team Pennsylvania Human Resources Investment Council, Foundation Skills Sub-Committee worked with the Framework project team to identify essential, work-based foundation skills that are relevant and meaningful for all workforce investment partners. Team members crosswalked (compared) state and national foundation skills models to identify relevant similarities and differences. The models included:

1) PA: Workplace Basic Skills Model developed by Southwest PA National Governors Association Demonstration project, Bureau of ABLE Adult Learner Competencies, and Department of Education K-12 Academic Standards;
2) National: Skill Standards and National Institute for Literacy's Equipped for the Future.

The comparisons revealed that most models encompass the same foundation skills but group or categorize them in slightly different ways or for different purposes; some include levels and sub-skills and others do not.

The framework defines the term "foundation skills," defines 13 foundation skills and 5 knowledge components identified by the project, and shows the three global categories into which the core skills and knowledge are organized. It also explains the importance of the pursuit of lifelong learning as the foundation skill underlying all others.

Component sub-skills and competencies are being identified for each of the foundation skills. They will be organized from simple to complex and divided into three levels (basic, intermediate, and advanced) to mirror the traditional division of ABLE programs (grade equivalent 0-4, 5-8, and 9-12.)

DEFINITION OF FOUNDATION SKILLS

Foundation skills are the core skills and knowledge that all workers (emerging, transitional, or incumbent) need to function effectively in any workplace. They are essential to effective performance in a broad range of jobs, used together (integrated), and are portable across workplaces.

Basic Workplace Skills

These are the applied academic skills that all workers need to function effectively in the workplace. These skills include: 1. Read with understanding 2. Write clearly and concisely 3. Listen with understanding. 4. Speak clearly and concisely 5. Observe critically 6. Apply mathematical concepts, operations, and reasoning 7. Use technology 8. Locate and use resources

Continuous Employability Skills

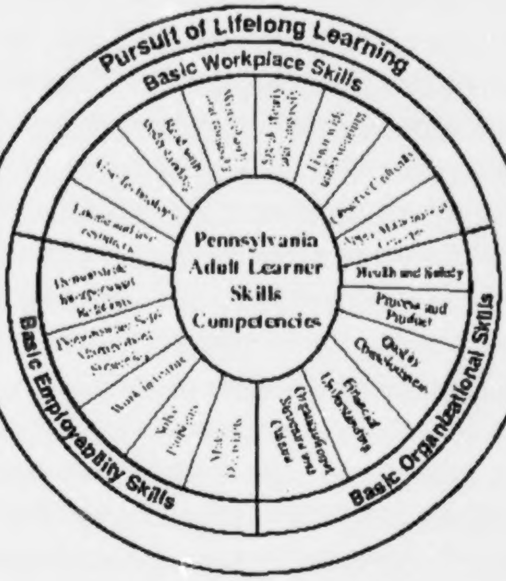
These are the cognitive, personal, and interpersonal skills every worker needs to interact appropriately within the workplace as well as advance to new positions and responsibilities.
They include: 1. Demonstrate effective interpersonal relations 2. Demonstrate self-management strategies 3. Work in teams 4. Solve problems 5. Make decisions

Basic Organizational Knowledge

This includes the fundamental components of every business or industry that all workers need to understand in order to function effectively on the job and within the organization.
1. Health and safety 2. Process and product 3. Quality consciousness 4. Financial understanding 5. Organizational structure and culture

The Pursuit of Lifelong Learning

This is the core foundation skill underlying all others and includes learning how to learn (setting learning goals and understanding one's learning strengths and weaknesses), preparing for and managing change, and transferring and applying new skills and knowledge to different contexts, including the workplace.


Pursuit of Lifelong Learning
Basic Workplace Skills
Basic Organizational Skills
Basic Employability Skills
Pennsylvania Adult Learner Skills Competencies
Read with Understanding
Speak clearly and concisely
Listen with understanding
Observe Critically
Use Technology
Health and Safety
Process and Product
Quality Consciousness
Financial Understanding
Organizational Structure and Culture
Work in teams
Solve Problems
Make Decisions

Priscilla Carman, Literacy Specialist, Penn State University- College of Education, Institute for the Study of Adult Literacy, 102 Rackley Building, University Park, PA 16802 psc3@psu.edu

Heidi Watson, Sr. Research Technologist, Penn State University- College of Education, Institute for the Study of Adult Literacy, 102 Rackley Building, University Park, PA 16802 haw6@psu.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Roundtables

NEEDS ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATION: ARE WE PRACTICING WHAT WE PREACH?

Jeri L. Childers
Talat Azhar
Jeanne M. Williams

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study of adult educators focuses on the reasons for participation in professional development activities and the impact of selected professional development activities on practice. The study was conducted on learners attending a selected professional development conference: *Best Practices in Outreach and Public Service: The Scholarship of Engagement*, held at the Pennsylvania State University in October 1999. The components of the study included four levels of inquiry: 1) a front end needs assessment; 2) a participant satisfaction survey; 3) a survey of selected institutional environmental factors, i.e., support and barriers, and intended application of learning; and 4) a survey of the participants' application of learning.

The research was designed to answer a series of questions that related to reasons for participation, relevance of learning to job responsibilities, quality of the learning experience, and application of learning. The roundtable discussion will focus on the variety of evaluation and analysis techniques that were employed and a discussion of their relative effectiveness.

METHODOLOGY

The study employed a variety of survey methods which included direct mail, telephone, on-site electronic, paper and pencil, and web-based surveys. The front-end needs analysis was conducted through a web-based survey (August, 1998). Responses to the survey were solicited through a letter mailed to attendees of a similar conference held at Michigan State University. The survey was also distributed to a limited number of faculty and staff in cooperative extension, continuing education, distance education, technology transfer, governmental relations, and university relations at other selected institutions. A hard copy of the survey was included with the letter, along with a return envelope. The data collected through this survey was used to develop the conference themes and content.

The on-site participant satisfaction evaluations were conducted electronically during the course of the 3-day conference (October, 1999). Participants were also asked to describe their institutional environment during this phase of the survey. The results of the on-site survey were shared with conference attendees at the plenary sessions on the second and third day. The last phase of this research will be conducted through a follow-up survey 3 months after the conference. This survey will be focused on the application of learning.

RESULTS

The conference was attended by over 300 representatives from 75 universities from 46 states in the US and abroad. One hundred and twenty-one participants responded to the survey on Day 1, one hundred and twenty-two on Day 2, and fifty-eight on Day 3 of the conference. Data was analyzed using both qualitative and quantitative methods of analysis.

Overall, the conference was extremely well received by the participants. Participants listed the major factors influencing the decision to participate in the conference as (a) conference theme, (b) potential to exchange ideas and knowledge with a colleague, (c) being able to interact with others in outreach, and (d) benchmark with other institutions. The participants ranked each of these factors high on the performance scale as well.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Understanding the reasons for participation in continuing professional education (CPE) can provide useful information for program development, delivery, and evaluation. Research on reasons for participation in CPE has grown from studies conducted on the phenomenon of adult education (Childers, 1993; Fujita-Starck, 1996; Henry & Basile, 1994; Grotelueschen, Kenny, Harnisch, & Cervero, 1981). Numerous theoretical frameworks, and motivational models (Boshier, 1991; Cookson, 1986; Cross, 1981), and Triandis's (as cited in Yang, Blunt, & Butler, 1994) behavioral intention theory have guided the research on reasons for participation. Hall (1968) investigated the problems confronting professionals in bureaucratic organizations like institutions of higher education that impact application of learning. Houle (1980) categorized the types of work settings and related them to types of learning needs and educational activities. Childers (1993) related the use of reasons for participation to implications for marketing, program design, and program delivery for adult educators. Grzyb, Graham, and Donaldson (1998) studied the effects that academic preparation, leadership, functional roles, and occupational specialty had on reasons for becoming involved in training and education.

REFERENCES

Boshier, R. W. (1991). Psychometric properties of the alternative form of the education participation scale. *Adult Education Quarterly, 41*, 150-167.

Childers, J. L. (1993). *Assessing the reasons for participation in continuing professional education: A study of the relationship between attitudes, work setting and structure of a professionalizing occupation.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri, Columbia.

Cookson, P. S. (1986). A framework for theory and research on adult education participation. *Adult Education Quarterly, 36*, 130-141.

Cross, K. P. (1981). New frontiers for higher education: Business and professions. In American Association for Higher Education (Ed.), *Partnership with business and the professions* (pp. 132-141). Washington, DC: Author.

Fujita-Starck, P. J. (1996). Motivations and characteristics of adult students: Factor stability and construct validity of educational participation scale. *Adult Education Quarterly 47*, 29-40.

Grotelueschen, A. D., Kenny, W., Harnisch, D., & Cervero, R. (1981). Reasons for participation in continuing professional education: Comparative analysis of five professions. *Proceedings of 22nd Annual Adult Education Research Conference* (pp. 27-29). DeKalb, IL: Northern Illinois University.

Grzyb, S. W., Jr., Graham, S. W., & Donaldson, J. F. (1998). Participation in education and training: The influence of preparation and organizational roles. *Journal of Instructional Psychology, 25*(1), 21-33.

Hall, R. H. (1968). Professsionalization and bureaucratization. *American Journal of Sociology, 69*, 32-40.

Henry, G. T., & Basile, K. C. (1994). Understanding the decision to participate in formal adult education. *Adult Education Quarterly, 44*, 64-82.

Houle, C. O. (1980). *Continuing learning in the professions.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Yang, B., Blunt, A., & Butler, R. S. (1994). Prediction of participation in continuing professional education: A test of two behavioral intention models. *Adult Education Quarterly, 44*, 83-96.

Jeri L. Childers, Ph.D., Assistant Director, Outreach Office of Program Development, The Pennsylvania State University, 403 Keller Building, University Park, PA 16802.

Talat Azhar, Research Associate, Outreach Office Marketing Research, The Pennsylvania State University, 403 Keller Building, University Park, PA 16802.

Jeanne M. Williams, Program Development Specialist, The Pennsylvania State University, 403 Keller Building, University Park, PA 16802.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Roundtables

STRATEGIES FOR SENIOR LEARNERS

Susan K. Clark

ABSTRACT

People are living longer and engaging in many activities. If you present information in a simple flyer or design curricula for higher education or training applications, you need to be aware of strategies which will assist older participants. This session provides suggestions to diminish or eliminate the affects of aging for learners over fifty.

SUMMARY

MEMORY

Even (1987) states, "learning is a problem-solving process in which a new idea comes into the perception of an adult" (p.24). Registration, retention and recollection are the three stages involved in memory (Ogle, 1986). Older people generally require a stronger and longer exposure to stimulus (Knox, 1977). Useful strategies will be discussed.

HEARING

Age diminishes our ability to distinguish high-pitched sounds and low-intensity sounds (Atchley, 1988). However, most older people hear frequencies below high C as well as young adults. Strategies for hearing will be presented.

VISION

As our eyes age, several changes occur. Around the age of forty, most people require corrective lenses for reading. This effect is due to a reduced ability of the lens to change shape (Atchley, 1988). It takes longer to adjust from light to dark and vice versa (Hurford, 1985). Glare can be troublesome for older folks as well as difficulty seeing subtle visual contrasts (Kidd, 1973). Visual strategies will be suggested.

REACTION TIME

The time it takes for a response to begin after presenting a stimulus is referred to as reaction time (Peterson, Thornton, & Birren, 1986). As we get older, our reaction time slows. The more choices involved in a performance, the longer it takes to react (Atchley, 1988). Strategies will be discussed.

CONCLUSION

Older people can usually learn anything younger adults can, given extra time (Atchley, 1988). Incorporating these strategies will give all participants an equal chance to enjoy the benefits of learning.

REFERENCES

Atchley, R. C. (1988). *Social forces and aging.* Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Even, A. (1987). Why adults learn in different ways. *Lifelong Learning: An Omnibuts for Practice and Research, 10*(8), 22-25, 28.

Hurford, D. P. (1985). Older adult visual processing. *Educational Gerontology, 11,*191-200.

Kidd, J. R. (1973). *How adults learn*. Chicago: Follett.

Knox, A. B. (1977). *Adult development and learning*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Ogle, S. E. (1986). Memory and aging: A review and application of current theories. *Lifelong Learning: An Omnibuts for Practice and Research, 9*(6), 8-12, 27.

Peterson, D. A., Thornton, J. E., & Birren, J. E. (Eds.). (1986). *Education and aging*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Susan K. Clark, Ph.D., 196 Camelot Arms, York, PA 17402-1869. express2u@msn.com

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

LEARNING AT THE EDGE OF SOCIAL MOVEMENTS FOR CULTURAL AND ECOLOGICAL SUSTAINABILITY

Regina Curry
Shu-chuan Liao
Gerri Outlaw
Jan Woodhouse

ABSTRACT

Four women, self-described as co-learners and scholar/practitioner/activists have constructed this presentation. These women represent a variety of cultures and have worked with and/or studied social movements related to cultural and environmental sustainability in urban and rural areas in Africa, India, Latin America, Taiwan and the United States. Their research addresses practitioner concerns regarding: What are the characteristics of the learning that takes place at the edge of social movements? How are these characteristics manifested in social movements related to environmental issues? What is the role of research in these initiatives?

THE CASE STUDIES

TAIWAN: HOMEMAKERS ESTABLISH COMMUNITY-BASED ENVIRONMENTAL PROGRAMS

In 1987 a group of homemakers decided that they had a responsibility to stop the deterioration of the environment for their children and community. The first action organized was "Garbage Sorting and Recycling." This effort started from the community in which Wang Pao-tze, the founder of Homemaker's Union and Foundation, lived. She went to each family in her community, asked them to participate, and showed them how to sort garbage. From this root, the movement has grown to include organizing to enact environmental laws, creating green walks for the community in Taipei City to help residents better understand and make policy about the environments in which they live, and organizing cooperative buying programs (which by 1999 included 3000 members) to consolidate the consumers' buying power and to build solidarity among consumers, producers, and the land (Liao, 1999).

INDIA: THE NARMADA VALLEY PROJECT

Medha Patkar, a social worker, investigated the development projects of the World Bank in the Narmada Valley that called for the construction of 30 major dams on the Narmada River and its tributaries. Despite World Bank and engineers' claims to the contrary, Patkar saw the inevitable and potential eco-catastrophies and the social disruption that this project would cause. She went out into villages of the region to organize and educate. The Narmada Project was eventually a catalyst to organize the country's environmental groups. Patkar became a key leader raising social justice issues such as, "Who pays and who benefits?" (Wallace & Gancher, 1992).

CHICAGO SOUTH SIDE: PROTEST, PROCESS, POLICY

Despite the contribution of significant religious, economic and cultural elements by people of color, Chicago remains one of the most racially segregated cities in the United States. Race and poverty shape the experiences of nearly one-half its residents, especially African-Americans, as a result of exclusion from the social, economic, and political processes. Local resistance to unfair, exclusionary, and exploitive practices on the south side of Chicago have manifested in the organization of Block Clubs. One example of this occurred when the Chicago school board decided to alleviate overcrowding with trailers or "Willis Wagons", as they were called, named after the

Chicago School District Superintendent. Rosie Simpson, a mother and resident of the south side community of Englewood, helped the community fight this initiative. (Curry, 1998).

CHICAGO: THE LIVES OF YOUNG GIRLS PROJECT

Since 1989, the percent of AIDs cases among females has almost doubled and the cases of pediatric AIDS are also on the rise. The "Lives of Young Girls Project" is an HIV/AIDS education and prevention program targeted at girls, ages 13-18 in the Austin community area. The program model is characteristic of feminist organizing strategies and is based on the ideology of empowerment through consciousness raising. This program differs from others in that the experiences of the daily life of girls in Austin form the foundation for the preventative effort. This program recruits and trains young girls to recruit and train their peers about self efficacy, empowerment, goal-setting and making conscious life choices to improve the quality of life and reduce the risks to HIV/AIDs (Outlaw, 1998).

SUMMARY

The research of the authors, illustrated in four different settings, reveals the following patterns to the learning that occurs at the edge of social movements for ecological and cultural sustainability:

- Learning at the edge of social movements takes place in the community and wherever there is a need to interpret the world into everyday language. Knowledge is created or indigenous knowledge is applied to increase self-reliance. Most importantly, perhaps, learning occurs from one-on-one experiences with other members of the community. The dialogical approach to organizing and problem solving is popular (Curry, 1998).
- Community-based education encourages dialogue between the community residents and the activists and makes a place for the creation of knowledge by ordinary people based on their life-world (Liao, 1999).
- The empowerment characteristic of feminist organizing strategies emphasizes empowerment as a process of increasing personal, interpersonal, or political power so individuals can take action to improve their lives (Outlaw, 1998).
- The resolution of environmental problems that threaten cultural and ecological sustainability is being negotiated through social movements world-wide. These movements involve education as an agent of change on a multitude of levels. These movements usually begin as local initiatives: rural, loosely organized generated from and dependent on the actions of those affected by the problem (Woodhouse, 1998).

REFERENCES

Curry, R. (1998). . Protest, process, policy: Chicago south side social movements. In L. K. Williams (Ed.), 8th *Annual Adult Education Research Symposium. Towards a new self-reliance: Strengthening the heart of America through co-ethnic relationships* (pp. 56-60). DeKalb, IL: Northern Illinois University.

Liao, S. (1999). *A historical analysis of the struggle of Taiwanese women to bring about social change from1950 to present.* Unpublished manuscript, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb.

Outlaw, G. (1998). The lives of young girls: An HIV/Aids education and prevention community model. In L. K. Williams (Ed.), 8th *Annual Adult Education Research Symposium. Towards a new self-reliance: Strengthening the heart of America through co-ethnic relationships* (pp. 61-68). DeKalb, IL: Northern Illinois University.

Wallace, A., & Gancher, D. (Eds.). (1992). *Eco-heroes: Twelve tales of environmental victory.* San Francisco: Mercury House.

Woodhouse, J. (1998). *Globalization and sustainable development: An impossible dream?* Unpublished manuscript, Northern Illinois University, Dekalb.

Regina Curry, rcurry1@niu.edu; Shu-chuan Liao, scliao@niu.edu; Geri Outlaw, goutlaw@neiu.edu.com; Jan Woodhouse, woodhoj@essex1.com. Dept. of Counseling, Adult and Health Education, 200 Gabel Hall, Northern Illinois University DeKalb, Illinois 60115.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

FACILITATION AS A NEEDS ASSESSMENT TOOL FOR BUILDING AN EFFECTIVE KNOWLEDGE SHARING NETWORK FOR SMALL MANUFACTURERS

Richard A. De Blasio

The results of this research indicate that collective business to business learning, in the arrangement of a "Knowledge Sharing Network," is possible and effective when innovative facilitation methodology replaces traditional needs assessments. Thirty-five small manufacturers met on a quarterly basis to increase their knowledge and skills about Environmental Management Systems (EMS). Basic needs assessment tools were not adequate in uncovering critical elements of EMS until innovative facilitation skills were used as the intervention. This resulted in low input of information during group discussions and networking designed to create needs gaps for a knowledge sharing exchange. The original learning plan had to be thoroughly revised in order to collect useable information.

It is important for this roundtable to acknowledge that innovative collaborative arrangements for knowledge transfer, workforce development and adult education programs in business and industry may becoming a trend. For such collaborative partnerships to demonstrate successful learning application outcomes, those involved in organizational adult education need to nurture learning strategy research in new environments. I have seen collaborative education and training efforts fail because the idea had never really been engineered. Instead, while the idea may have had merit, the programs were implemented with little planning, action research, and continuous improvement efforts. If any innovative learning programs are to prove themselves in the new century by achieving educational goals and learning objectives, action research methodology will be required to manage and improve such strategies.

THE NETWORK LEARNING ACTION RESEARCH PROJECT

It is difficult to identify small businesses' needs in the area of Environmental Management Systems. The difficulty, or problem, lies in the quality and quantity of information generated by the businesses (at facilitated member meetings) to perform an accurate needs assessment. A successful needs assessment process tool is necessary to build educational workshops for the manufacturing organizations.

Lack of information was limiting the establishment of accurate learning objectives, workshop topics, and, in the rarest cases, entire workshop programs. This is evident in the feedback response listed on workshop evaluations, through conversations, and lack of attendance at the workshops.

Currently the representative companies are encouraged to explain areas where they "think" they know what they need. There is lack of input participation from the representatives. A facilitator asks the group what is their concerns about implementing EMS at their facility. After a silent period (think time), only a few make responses and the others listen to absorb. This results in skewed data. I find the data less than desirable to develop an instructional plan. As a result, the workshops are not being well attended, which may be a result of workshop design and announcements not identifying some needed content. It is always the same persons who contribute in these large group discussions.

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board

My intervention was to find just what actions I could do which would improve the collective needs assessment. I have chosen to replace the term "collective groups" with "Knowledge Sharing Networks" from this point on as my first intervention. I felt some name was required which would also suggest (to the participants) what function the group was expected to perform.

There are also the "pillars" of adult education that needed to be considered for a successful needs identification and learning program outcome. The pillars, or fundamental adult education principles, needed to be incorporated into any intervention I attempted. Although I could have let the pillars remain absent for interest in observing the outcome, I have previously experienced pedagogical effects on adult learners. I was adamant that the participants play a major role in building their own workshops. Specifically, this meant: the ability to "free think" during data generation sessions; to keep the process relative to their daily work; and to encourage them to immediately apply all learning on the job. I also felt it important to "pull information" rather than "push information."

Suspecting that the participants at both of these locations were neglecting to include critical information as a group, I planned my first action cycle to be a direct needs assessment. This was performed by personally visiting and interviewing more than 50% of the company representatives (~ 15 persons) at their place of manufacturing. I suggested 50% as a reasonable sampling to complete in a one month period. I made a tentative assumption that a one-on-one encounter would be less intimidating to the participant and he or she would open up more than in the large group. The interviewees were selected on the basis of their "less than desired" participation in the group sessions. I planned to put enough structure into each interview without limiting opportunities for valuable free thinking.

My second intervention proved to be the action rendering success. A small group of seven persons was invited to a breakfast meeting. A theme was attached to the agenda called "problems without solutions." Six of the persons invited were previously interviewed. The seventh person had the "outspoken" characteristics in the large groups. My assumption that he could be a "trigger" person proved correct. A significant amount of useful data was generated within the small group. Ideas generated by the small group were then posted on butcher paper around the room during the large group session and individuals voted with dots placed on the priority of their needs.

I established Success Measures that I would use to compare the three types of interventions I deployed: 1) no intervention; 2) interviews, 3) small working group.

- (BASELINE A) number of workshop ideas generated (15 ideas Net (after prioritizing), is the average (> 25 total) of previous sessions with no action intervention)
- (BASELINE B) number of participants attending the workshops (generally average 8-12 although lowest was 4 attendees and highest was 22; all over 2 years)
- Level 3 learning application evaluation summaries (as a follow up, not previously measured
- (BASELINE C) Level 1 attitude evaluation summaries
- (BASELINE D) Comment Statements about the Workshops (control and small group only)
- (BASELINE E) Observations of participation made and compared to past meetings

The smaller group generated a net (after prioritization) of 4 ideas, (22 total) in the same time period of about 1-1/2 hours. Although the large group generated 40 ideas, only two would make it to the prioritized workshop status. Those two are the same as identified by the small group. The interviews generated eight ideas, but these were greatly influenced by my having to present suggestions.

Richard A. De Blasio, Instructional Designer, World-Class Industrial Network, 285 William Pitt Way, Pittsburgh, PA 15238

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

DEVELOPMENT OF A VALID JOB-RELEVANT FIELD TRAINING OFFICER PROGRAM THROUGH JOB TASK ANALYSIS AND THE APPLICATION OF SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY

Dennis L. Eberly

ABSTRACT

One of the principal methods used in acclimating new employees within a work setting is the on-the-job training experience. Within the police profession, this experience is embodied within the Field Training Officer (FTO) program. This training program involves modeling of appropriate police behavior by selected veteran police officers for newly-assigned police officers who have recently graduated from police academy training.

In order for the FTO program to be legally defensible within a society that increasingly relies upon civil litigation against police agencies and officials, police behaviors and competencies must be identified and articulated. This endeavor may best be accomplished by conducting a task analysis.

Once the task analysis is completed and job behaviors are described, the Field Training Officer must model those behaviors for the police trainee. For guidance in the process of modeling behaviors, the training program may benefit from the principles espoused by Bandura (1977) in his Social Learning Theory.

The author's intent is to identify the need for research to inform and improve the practice of the Field Training Officer, whose duties qualify him or her to be considered an adult educator. Research in this area would have broad application across a multitude of adult education contexts.

SUMMARY

During the 1980's, on-the-job training within the police profession became more formalized under a concept known as the Field Training Officer (FTO) program. The basic premise of the program involves the use of specially-selected veteran police officers to model appropriate police behavior for newly-assigned police officers. Most often, these new police officers have recently graduated from police academy training, and now must learn to apply their new skills "on the street." The typical field training program consists of three phases of training. During the first phase, the FTO models all associated tasks that are encountered while the trainee focuses upon observing the modeled behavior. The second phase is oriented toward a more active role of the trainee in the performance of tasks, with liberal support of guidance and feedback from the FTO. The third phase entails the trainee performing the bulk of the duties with occasional feedback and support from the FTO. If the trainee is meeting performance standards at the end of this phase, he or she is assigned to patrol independently. If the trainee is not attaining performance standards, field training may be extended until standards are met. Should the extension not result in improved trainee performance, the trainee may be terminated from employment with the police department.

The proliferation of civil litigation against police agencies and officials in the United States has often been directed at law enforcement training activities. The evolving case law has resulted in several recommendations for law enforcement training programs: 1) The training was necessary as validated by a task analysis; 2) the persons conducting the training were qualified to conduct such training; 3) the training did, in fact, take place and was properly conducted and documented; 4) the

---

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

training was state-of-the-art and up-to-date; 5) adequate measures of mastery of the subject matter can be documented; 6) those who did not satisfactorily learn in the training session have received additional training and now have mastery of the subject matter; and 7) close supervision exists to monitor and continually evaluate the trainee's progress (Barrineau, 1987).

The process of task analysis consists of several components. The analysis begins with a task description, proceeding into a detailed listing of tasks, which are then scaled on the basis of specific criteria (Goldstein, 1986; Jurkanin, 1989; Nicholson, 1997; Wexley & Latham, 1983). Mitchell (1993) identifies the beneficial aspects of a properly conducted task analysis: 1) define performance standards; 2) frame and direct training; 3) evaluate training; 4) assist in planning and controlling work flow; 5) clarify the job, the training, and the communications for both em-ployees and management; 6) provide basic performance data; and 7) act as a strategic planning aid.

Once acceptable police behaviors are identified through the task analysis process, the process by which trainees learn those behaviors must be addressed. Modeling constitutes a powerful method of acquiring behaviors and represents a major component of Bandura's (1977) Social Learning Theory (also known as Social Cognitive Theory or observational learning), which is governed by four major processes: 1) attention, 2) retention, 3) reproduction, and 4) motivation.

Several types of reinforcement drive the motivational process. They are external (direct) reinforcement, vicarious reinforcement, and self-reinforcement (Bandura, 1977). External reinforcement refers to the direct consequences experienced by the leaner as a result of observing and imitating modeled behavior. Vicarious reinforcement is developed by anticipated consequences attributed to observation of other people's behaviors and resultant consequences in similar situations. Self-reinforcement is provided by the internal drive to achieve self-fulfillment.

Discussion will focus upon how further research involving task analysis and Social Learning Theory may inform and improve the practice of the FTO, as well as other adult educators who are responsible for on-the-job training across various contexts. Improvements in training contribute to the development of competent and productive employees, who are more likely to exert positive influences within their organizational settings.

REFERENCES

Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Barrineau, H. E., III. (1987). *Civil liability in criminal justice*. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson.

Goldstein, I. L. (1986). *Training in organizations: Needs assessment, development, and evaluation*. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Jurkanin, T. J. (1989). Job task analysis. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 58*(11), 9-13.

Mitchell, G. (1993). *The trainer's handbook: The AMA guide to effective training*. New York: American Management Association.

Nicholson, L. G. (1997). *Instructor development training: A guide for security and law enforcement*. Boston: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Wexley, K., & Latham, G. (1983). Identifying training needs. In L. S. Baird, C. E. Schneier, & D. Laird (Eds.), *The training and development sourcebook* (pp. 22-38). Amherst, MA: Human Resource Development Press.

Dennis L. Eberly, Sergeant, East Hempfield Township Police Department, 1700 Nissley Road, P.O. Box 128, Landisville, PA 17538. eberly@redrose.net

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

EXPLORING MULTICULTURAL AND GENDER ISSUES: ANDRAGOGY IN WELFARE-TO-WORK PROGRAMS

Adrienne Fontenot

ABSTRACT

The passing of the 1996 Welfare Reform Act brought changes to the system. Certain longtime Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) recipients who face termination from the system are being forced to enter job readiness training. These adult learners are unlike many adults who voluntarily partake in continuing their education. These mostly minority women are forced to enter job readiness training or else face immediate loss in benefits. Problems arise because they are in training not of their own will. Instructors in this situation are faced with deciding which activities should be selected to ensure learning for this population. With the use of adult learning theories and practices, trainers in welfare-to-work programs can best serve the needs of these women. By using a modified version of the six principles of andragogy, trainers are more likely to get participants involved in and let them see that they have a stake in their learning. Creating the right training program is the best way to deal with the fact that these participants may not be ready to learn. Trainers set the atmosphere by making welfare-to-work programs less like a punishment and more like something meaningful to each participant.

SUMMARY

This paper is a result of my experiences as a graduate assistant working in a division of continuing education's newly formed welfare-to-work program. Along with this new program came problems. With this particular program, the problems seemed to center around the curriculum. The clients and the methods used to train them were rotated on a monthly basis until a method that could best assist them had been discovered. Incorporating a modified version of the principles of andragogy into the curriculum allowed for a more pleasant and successful learning environment by enabling us to better interact with the groups of women that we had been asked to serve.

Adrienne Fontenot, Doctoral Student, University of Southern Mississippi, 300 3rd Street, Mamou, LA 70554.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

DEVELOPING CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS WITHIN AN ASSOCIATE DEGREE PROGRAM: CAN IT BE ACCOMPLISHED?

Tamera K. Humbert

ABSTRACT

With the growth of medical technology and practice, the resulting knowledge required to work under a medical model has significantly changed over the past 25 years. In addition, the change in reimbursement practice of medical services has resulted in increased expectations and responsibilities for all healthcare professionals, but especially for those with minimal education.

Schon (1987) has suggested that professionals need to be more than providers of techniques and skills. They need to be able to perform as "artist." They need to be able to respond to a variety of situations and be effective in their practice. His approach to developing these effective professionals is through a reflective practice.

The primary theoretical perspectives in developing critical thinking skills include reflective practice by Schon (1987) and reflection in practice by Brookfield (1992). Individuals who have provided strategies for developing reflective practice (based on Schon's work) include Peters (1991) and Liebowitz (1992). One other theoretical perspective that deserves investigation is the cognitive development of critical reasoning skills and the development of reflective skills.

Mines, King, Hood and Wood (1990), in their research study, attempted to identify the correlation between intellectual development, the development of critical thinking skills and reflective judgment (Reflective Judgment Model). Their research indicated that students who reason using the assumptions of the higher stages of reflective judgment demonstrated better critical thinking skills. According to this study, there is preliminary support for the belief that there is a developmental basis for the acquisition of critical thinking skills. In addition, the critical thinking skills that distinguished among reflective judgment stages included (a) interpreting weighted evidence and identifying generalizations, (b) detecting fallaciously ambiguous arguments, (c) deducting (reasoning) from premises to conclusions, and (d) analyzing the degree of accuracy or inferences drawn from given statements (Mines, King, Wood, & Wood, 1990). This theory would help support the belief that reflective practice and critical thinking skills can be developed.

Specific research on the use and development of critical thinking skills within allied healthcare professionals has been documented; however, the research completed has been recognized with senior level, undergraduate or masters prepared students, not with students receiving an associates degree. The question presents itself: Can critical reasoning skills be developed with students at an associative degree program? This roundtable discussion will focus on the teaching strategies and theoretical support for facilitating critical reasoning skills with students at an associate degree level.

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

SUMMARY

This roundtable discussion will focus on the current theory and research supporting the development of critical thinking skills as well as pedagogical approaches used with students in associate degree programs in developing critical thinking skills.

REFERENCES

Brookfield, S. (1992). Uncovering assumptions: The key to reflective practice. *Adult Learning, 3*(4), 13-14.

Liebowitz, S. (1992, January). *The Pause Model: Self-directed continuing education for professionals with social practices.* Paper presented at 6th International Self-Directed Learning Symposium, West Palm Beach, FL. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 342 920)

Mines, R., King, P., Hood, A., & Wood, P. (1990). Stages of intellectual development and associated critical thinking skills in college students. *Journal of College Student Development, 31*, 538-547.

Peters, J. (1991). Strategies for reflective practice. In R. G. Brockett (Ed.), *Professional development for educators of adults* (pp. 89-96). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. (New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education, No. 51)

Schon, D. (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Tamera K. Humbert, M.Ed., OTR/L, Penn State University, Berks-Lehigh Valley College, PO Box 7009, Reading , PA 19610-6009.

I wish to thank Dr. Andrea Ellinger for her support and encouragement to submit this proposal and to Dr. Daniele Flannery for her encouragement to investigate this area of practice.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Roundtables

OPENING THE MIND: FUNDAMENTAL ATTITUDES AND THE INTERIOR STRUCTURE OF OPENNESSS

Catherine B. King

ABSTRACT

In this Roundtable activity the participants' own experience and critical capacities will reveal the broad outlines of the interior structures of the human mind. In turn, the participant's personal self-discovery of these structures will reveal the evidence for the general structure of *all* minds (Lonergan, 1970). Emerging with this structure are the *polemical attitudes* that both block and assist openness to learning (Piscitelli, 1975), and that cause many problems in adult education, e.g., recruitment, attention, retention, and drop out rates.

This brief Roundtable exercise should result in a new self-understanding for the teacher or researcher that will then yield a better understanding of adult learners and, in turn, a new ground for directions in adult educational activities. Personal results will provide the teacher or researcher with an empirically based reference for structures of inquiry including a beginning understanding of the *attitudes*. This understanding will in turn help participants begin to develop new ways for "Opening the Mind" of the adult learner in every field of inquiry and training (King, 1999).

SUMMARY

Our topic is education, and specifically, adult education. We will acquaint educators and researchers with the general structure of his/her own consciousness and to suggest, in the time available, the interior *attitudes* at work in adult learners in the long unfolding journey we know as human learning. What are the broad outlines that define our inquiry, and what are the *attitudes* that block or open adult learners, including us, to learning?

This self-discovery activity is named General Empirical Method, the method of methods, or *how* we learn, including how we discover methods themselves. This cognitional theory reveals method. It is *general* because it concerns the *data of the human mind*--related but not limited to the data of the physical sciences. It is *empirical* because evidence is discovered by allowing our cognitional theory to guide us as we experience, question, understand, and confirm our own conscious operations explained by the theory. It is *method* because it is a "normative pattern of recurrent and related operations yielding cumulative and progressive results" (Lonergan, 1972). It is not generally revisable because, as we will see, revision would appeal to the same operations we are discovering, and that would itself prove the theory as given.

THE STRUCTURE: METHOD OF SELF-DISCOVERY

The moderator will introduce the process of self-discovery and verification by, first, giving the theory of the structure of consciousness as the set of four generalized questions we ask of anything. Second, she will ask participants for examples of their own life events or crises. Third, she will ask participants to write down questions that emerged within this event or crises (four or five). Fourth, using their own questions as examples, the group will match each participant's specific questions to the generalized structure. As we will see, all of the questions will fall into one of the four generalized sets of questions, therefore revealing the general structure of conscious inquiry.

This short but effective verification activity will *show* how inquiry is ordered around questions for *intelligence, truth, good* or *worthwhile*, and *ultimate concern*. Participants are not asked to *believe* anything; rather they are asked to use their critical capacities to reference and verify the data under consideration: the structure of their own inquiry.

THE ATTITUDES

By verifying the structure of mind, we can understand how closure and openness occurs around these sets of questions as *attitudinal*. If we have time, we will explore briefly the broad outlines of the *attitudinal roadmap* that conditions our learning throughout our lives. There are four sets of polemical attitudes; however, time allows focus on one set--the two attitudes surrounding *knowing* itself. These two attitudes are expressed as (1) *relativism*, or claiming knowledge and truth are non-existent, and (2) *dogmatism*, claiming that knowledge is Absolute. We will show these attitudes in both their positive and negative dimensions. *Negatively* they close our minds to knowledge. *Positively* they open us to acquiring real critical knowledge. Without beginning with the possibility of real knowledge, what is education? Furthermore, the attitudes are *descriptive* and *explanatory* rather than *prescriptive* and, like the general structure, are *verifiable* in personal conscious activities. These attitudes condition our knowing *anything* as continuing learners. Written material will accompany the Roundtable.

SIGNIFICANCE FOR ADULT EDUCATION

Research in education shows the realities of educating individuals do not fit the underlying foundations of the natural or social sciences. A new foundation is needed that suits education, but also relates adequately to the other sciences. We seek to newly locate the foundations of educational research in the self-understanding of the person's own verified structure of inquiry. Also, because the *attitudes* condition all learning, their study is central to adult education where unblocking learning is key. To be valid, however, critical persons--our Roundtable participants--must verify these activities.

Until now, empirical method has been under the exclusive use of the natural sciences. However, generalized to include conscious operations as its data for investigation, empirical method is now broadened to include the basic method of all other disciplines, including the natural sciences, and, for us, adult education. It is because of this generalization of empirical method that we can now recognize what Bernard Lonergan calls a *trans-cultural base* for understanding all human learning (Lonergan, 1972).

REFERENCES

King, C. B. (1999). *Opening the mind*. Unpublished manuscript.

Lonergan, B. (1970). *Insigh: A study of human understanding*. New York: Philosophical Library.

Lonergan, B. (1972). *Method in theology*. Minneapolis, MN: Winston Press.

Piscitelli, E. J. (1985). The fundamental attitudes of the liberally educated person: Foundational dialectics. *Lonergan Workshop, 5*, 285-342.

Catherine B. King, 12912 Carrie Court, Oklahoma City, OK 73120. cbking@flash.net

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University, Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Roundtables

THE POWER OF INCIDENTAL LEARNING: GIRLHOOD TO WOMANHOOD

Patricia A. London

The learning of girls and women has been examined from a psychological perspective. The importance of sociological influences upon girl's and women's learning is beginning to emerge in the literature. The effects of the media, provides powerful and intentional selected images of girls and women. The image most portrayed is the ideal body image. This ideal body image is a socially constructed one. It is defined by how the individual and other's view the body. Girls and women become objects to be viewed, and as such, the socialization of females is to make objects of their bodies

Incidental learning of the gendered body image teaches girls; how they are to learn and who controls their learning in school and as women later in life. A lack of confidence can result, leaving these girls and women "voiceless," as their bodies become controlled by an internalized image of perfection, so are their voices and learning controlled. To be connected knowers women need to be in an accepting relationship with their physical bodies. So that the physical body, is not an image but a true representation of the woman where she controls her process of creation.

The mass media is one of the most influential forces in the U.S. society. Through books, newspapers, magazines, movies, television, compact discs, billboards, commercials and the Internet, corporate entities can promote, generate or maintain our cultural norms and societal mores. No aspect is more persuasive than advertising the feminine ideal of beauty. The current market reflects a fifty billion-dollar a year diet industry, a twenty billion-dollar cosmetic industry and a three hundred million-dollar cosmetic surgery industry (Brand & Hong, 1997; Wolf, 1991). The economy of beauty tells girls and women to purchase products designed to change their natural appearance.

Women's body image extends beyond a concern with weight and size; our society's notions about female beauty and femininity are intricately woven into the fabric of body image. Wolf (1991) has observed that as women have made political, economic and educational advances in this country, the more strictly, heavily and cruelly have images of female beauty been imposed upon them. Wolf (1991) continues, "We are in the midst of a violent backlash against feminism that uses images of female beauty as a political weapon against women's advancement: the beauty myth" (p. 10).

The female body image is a media perpetuated stereotype, a norm for attractiveness and physical appearance. The creation of women's body image has become a multidimensional sociocultural construct. Walters (1995) contends that it is now impossible to "represent women (meaning actual, embodied women) within patriarchy, and that we have to reckon with that which is represented: women as a sign, as image, as spectacle" (p. 49). This image of perfection resides within the minds of many. It has its roots within childhood, schooling, family life and the media. Living in many females is the notion that perfection can not be obtained, but still effort, time, energy, and money must be proffered to strive toward that image. Girls and women become objects to be viewed, and as such, the socialization of females is to make objects of their bodies. Self-objectification is a learned art.

Jarvis (1995) states that learning in and about society is a non-reflective act. He labels pre-conscious learning as a "result of people having experiences in the course of their daily life about

---

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

which they do not really think or about which they are even particularly conscious" (p. 167). He believes this learning occurs at the edge of consciousness. Other call this informal learning, or unintentional learning that characterizes human behavior (Long, 1987). I propose that this informal learning of the gendered body image teaches girls; how to learn and who controls their learning in schools and as women later in life. In addition, these girls learn the value of their knowledge and how many times it is not accepted by the dominant culture.

Growing up female in an androcentric culture creates a cumulative effect on many women of negativity, self-doubting, and a settling for something other than their real self. Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule (1986) state that women who enter higher education are already consumed with "self-doubt" (p. 228). Self-doubt is then reflected in their ability to learn, or to show their learning. One of the most frequently stated internal barriers for women's returning to education is that of lacking self-confidence. These women have not been successful in prior school experiences and attribute this lack of success to themselves as learners, and not the educational process.

I would argue that this lack of self-confidences comes from the informal learning girls into women are subjected to in society. As girls learn how to conform their bodies into moldable beings, that are to be seen and not heard, their voices become muted in the classroom, at home and within society at large. Boys and men are the creators of knowledge (Goodlad & Keating, 1990). Becoming voiceless seems to be a necessity for some girls. By middle school, many girls will not volunteer in the classroom setting for fear of a negative comment from a boy or teacher. In this manner by not trying girls protect themselves but also allow another person to control them. As their bodies are to be controlled to meet an ideal image, the mind becomes controlled also, and I suggest this affects their learning and allows it to be controlled too. This continues in high school with many girls' not taking advanced math and science courses. It seems many are counseled away from these careers into traditional women's careers of teaching, child-care, and medicine (AAUW, 1992).

Television as a provider of images reinforces gendered body images as informal education. According to Schiller (as cited in Stubblefield & Keane, 1994), television "is now one of the most influential, largely unacknowledged educators in the country"; "for a large part of the population, "TV is the teacher, though the lessons transmitted rarely are recognized as such" (p. 257). It would seem that lessons on body image are situated within entertainment and product marketability. The creation of the American ideal woman is abundantly displayed on television. By discussing this informal education in the open, women may be able to realize the damage that media has on their bodies and the controlling aspect it has on their minds as well. Girls growing into women learn to be seen and not heard. Women learn not to use their voices in academic settings. I believe that as women become disconnected from their bodies, as they re-create themselves to fit an ideal, they also disconnect from their knowing, learning and perhaps adult development. It is here that as adult education can step in and ask why is meeting an image so important? If knowledge is socially constructed who constructed this ideal and why do women feel compelled to meet it. To be truly connected knowers women need to be in relationship with their physical bodies in an accepting and loving way. A way in which the physical body is not an image but a true representation of the woman where she controls her process of creation.

REFERENCES

American Association of University Women (AAUW). (1992). *How schools shortchange girls.* Washington DC: NEA Professional Library.

Belenky, M. F., Clinchy, B. M., Goldberger, N. R., & Tarule, J. M. (1986). *Women's ways of knowing: The development of self, voice and mind.* New York: Basic Books.

Brand, L., & Hong, L. (1997, May). *Dieting, dating and denial: Whose body is it?* Paper presented at the 75th Annual Meeting of the American College Health Association, New Orleans, LA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 412 435)

Goodlad, J., & Keating, P. (1990). *Access to knowledge: An agenda for our nation's schools.* New York: College Board.

Jarvis, P. (1995). *Adult and continuing education: Theory and practice* (2nd ed.). New York: Routledge.

Long, H. (1987). *New perspectives on the education of adults in the United States*. New York: Nichols Publishing Company.

Stubblefield, H., & Keane, P. (1994). *Adult education in the American experience: From the colonial period to the present*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Walter, S. D. (1995). *Material girls: Making sense of feminist cultural theory*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Wolf, N. (1991). *The beauty myth: How images of beauty are used against women*. New York: Doubleday.

Patricia A. London, 712 Florida Ave., York, PA 17404. pal136@psu.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Roundtables

THE MCNALLY-KILLION LEARNING ORGANIZATION MODEL: A CASE STUDY IN MANAGING CHANGE

Patty McNally

ABSTRACT

This research project takes theory to practice in an effort to resolve challenges experienced by a growing company. The foundation for this solution is the ongoing process of the Learning Organization. My research partner and I reviewed and critiqued six authors whose Learning Organization models capture the elements we felt were essential to moving this organization on the path of their chosen strategic goals toward a competitive advantage. As we developed a learner-driven process we focused on the specific, self-identified needs of the groups. It became clear to us that to address those needs and introduce systemic action while supporting competitive advantage, it would be necessary for us to design our own Learning Organization model. This model, the McNally-Killion Model, allowed us the flexibility to be learner driven while facilitating systemic action to direct and accommodate growth in an effective manner that was in congruence with the company culture. Our model requires a level of self-analysis, critical thinking and learning on the part of all employees.

We demonstrated the effectiveness of our model from two perspectives. One, we addressed the specific concerns that were employee identified. Two, we present two representative illustrations, one before and one after the learning process action. Our results validated our model of a Learning Organization in this case study.

SUMMARY

The common thread uniting all authors regarding Learning Organizations is systems thinking and learning. Their differences emerge at the operational level when they determine what learning will occur, when it should occur, and where the new knowledge should be applied. All agree that thinking from a systems perspective is critical to a Learning Organization.

We view the Learning Organization as an on-going process as opposed to an achieved state of being. It is not an arrival point, but rather a journey that anticipates and embraces the unexpected challenges and bumps in the road. With this in mind, we see our roles as being responsible for the cultivation of knowledge assets of the individuals participating in the Learning Organization that we are in the process of building. This requires of us a continuous learning model with coaching and mentoring skills.

The elements of our model represent the most salient components pulled and incorporated from Senge, Garvin, Perkins and Shaw and Guns. These elements include systems thinking and problem solving, personal mastery, mental models that support and integrate systems thinking, team learning, and learning from experience. We added elements to Marsick and Watkins' action imperative of learning, and modified the Redding and Catalanello model continuously taking action, reflecting on the action and modifying plans based on insights gained through the learning process.

Our model introduces what we feel is integral to the initial design of an appropriate model of a Learning Organization, a diagnostic period and an assessment segment. The diagnostic period comes before determining if a Learning Organization is appropriate and which model would best address the challenge of a particular organization. We designed the assessment to facilitate critical reflection of individual learning styles, past training programs and their usefulness, and the individuals' perceptions of the organizational mission, vision, and their role in it.

It was only after a lengthy analysis of this data, which was obtained through assessment tools, individual, group and team interviews, were we able to determine if the Learning Organization philosophy best suited facilitating the movement of the company in the direction it had chosen to move. We, however, felt it was imperative to have the process learner – driven and in alignment with employee/management strategic goals.

The ideal Learning Organization that we would like to create takes a holistic perspective to the work environment. By that, we mean that the individual is viewed as an integral part of the organization, both as human and intellectual resource. The purpose of our study was to work with the individuals that were involved in the rapid growth of the company. The most integral part of the growth is the individuals that work in the company. While this student concentrated on the effects of growth, the ideal model is flexible enough to work on other challenges, be they good or bad. Our model will allow the people to identify the challenges facing the company, be a part of the diagnosis of the challenges and takes all of this from the theoretical realm, to systemic action. We feel that assessment, diagnosis and learning without action is similar to hearing about a wonderful stage play but never getting to see it.

There are five elements of our model, assessment, diagnosis, learning, action and critical reflection. As we stated earlier, we learned a great deal from the authors and Learning Organization proponents, and we tried to apply the parts of their theories that seemed unique and appropriate. One of the more practical aspects of our model is that it is simple to explain and describe.

STATEMENT OF IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

We feel strongly that our model will, as stated before, identify the challenges within a company, diagnose them correctly, the participants will not only learn but will be able to take action on what they learn as well as critically reflect on the entire process. If the critical reflection goes as deeply as expected and modeled, it will become more than an exercise.

Our model values the human resource. The intellectual capital is part of the human resource that the organization must value, update and continue to invest in, to maintain placement in the market. The transformation to a knowledge economy is being fueled by the advance, spread and fusion of computer and telecommunications technology. Knowledge is the product. Therefore, in attempting to develop a more effective workforce, we must recognize and provide training to not only succeed, but to exceed in not merely the technological areas, but all areas where the company and the individual need to contribute to the success of the individual and the company. This is our ideal, our foundation, as adult education practitioners.

Dr. Patty McNally, Associate Dean, University College, Adult Degree Completion Programs
Concordia University, 7400 Augusta Street, River Forest, Illinois 60305

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Roundtables

ROOTS AND CULTURE AS TRANSFORMATION IN ADULT EDUCATION

Gerri Outlaw
Cathy Stanley

ABSTRACT

This paper examines Reggae and the Hip-Hop Cultural Movements among young urban youth and sets out the conditions under which social transformation can occur and lead to new knowledge creation and social action. Art can effectively instigate social transformation when learning occurs through an accessible critical social discourse rooted in social realities. Reggae and the Hip-Hop Cultural Movements provide an informal medium for learning and presents possibilities for social transformation through the generation of new voice and knowledge among urban youth.

Our examination of the Reggae and Hip-Hop Cultural Movements focuses on the possibilities for social transformation through learning among urban youth participating in the cultural production of knowledge. More specifically in this paper we examine how the depiction of social roles such as gender, attitudes and behavior as uncritically presented in dance hall Reggae and some forms of Hip-Hop music. The consumers and active participants in the movement can through critical social discourse provide an avenue for social transformation and the generation of new knowledge. This transformational process presents new ways of knowing and alternative approaches to the exchange of knowledge, where the marginalized voices of our urban youth can be heard and reflected in social action.

SUMMARY

Historically, black musical culture has always generated a socially conscious message communicated through song lyrics and seen in protest and songs of resistance to social injustice from the old Negro spirituals to the blues, Reggae and Hip-Hop as well as other musical genre. While manifestations of social and economic injustice in marginalized communities today remain prevalent, popular musical culture in which young urban youth are drawn still seeks to provide a social critique rooted in the social realities of urban life.

Born out of the conditions in marginalized communities Reggae emerged as a response. Reggae is a popular musical form that originated in Jamaica in the late 1960's and is associated with the Rastafarian Movement. The Rastafarian movement was developed as a political and cultural movement that emerged among communities of poor and working class Jamaicans. During the 1970's reggae music achieved global popularity and gained recognition as an effective intervention in social processes, derived from Rastafarian philosophy.

It is through reggae song lyrics and elements of discourse about reggae music in relation to Rastafarian cultural practices that brings about the shared experience of meaning making. Music and the effects of music can alter a people's definition of themselves and lead to social transformation. Music can often play an important role as a structurer and mediator of social consciousness.

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

The emergence of Hip-Hop Culture represents a resurfacing of a "raw" social consciousness that presents a vivid picture of a social reality identified with the marginalized black youth that black leaders, particularly the intellectuals have ignored. This music has captured the attention of our youth unlike popular musical culture in the past. The technological transformation in communications through global networks that virtually transmits instantaneously all over the world has created an accessibility to popular culture never experienced before. The Hip-Hop culture has spawned a new generation of organic intellectuals, the Hip-Hop artist, and offers a new site for social learning among urban African American youth.

This initiative explored ways in which adult education can create spaces for the marginalized voices to be shared through the facilitation of critical cultural exchanges between adult and youth leaders. It is these authors view that social transformation can occur when an opportunity for critical rap about music can be shared among urban youth, the seeds for social action are planted. This work pushes the borders of adult education beyond the corporate site to the site of lived experiences among urban youth. This project is set in the Austin Community in Chicago and involved a group of young African American youth that participated in an " Exchange of Knowing", i.e., a critical cultural transformation. This presentation will highlight the preliminary findings of this pilot project.

Gerri Outlaw & Cathy Stanley, Doctoral Students Northern Illinois University, Department of Adult Education and Health, 200 Gabel Hall; Dekalb, IL. 60115

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

BARRIERS TO CONTINUING EDUCATION AMONG MINISTERS IN THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH (DISCIPLES OF CHRIST) IN NORTH CAROLINA: MYTHS, REALITIES, INSIGHTS, AND STRATEGIES

Michael F. Price

In studies conducted over the past four decades among the general adult population and countless professions including the clergy, the elements of time, location, and cost have been discovered to be the most common deterrents to continuing education. Noticeably absent from this list is a study that seeks to reveal the barriers to continuing education among a specific group of ministers within the denomination known as the Christian Church (Disciples of Christ). Accordingly, the main objective of this study is to discover the deterrents to continuing education among a group (N=23) of ordained ministers in the Christian Church (Disciples of Christ) in North Carolina.

In a unique research design that incorporates a quantitative component into a qualitative study, the researcher used a Likert-type survey instrument known as the DPS (Deterrents to Participation Survey) to gain valuable descriptive data. Following, the participants were asked to respond in their own words to several open-ended questions. When the data had been collected and analyzed, it was obvious the barriers to continuing education revealed in previous studies have been replaced by a new set of barriers.

Dr. Michael F. Price, Senior Minister, St. Paul's Christian Church, 3331 Blue Ridge Road, Raleigh, NC 27612

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Roundtables

POLITICS: THEORIZING THE AFRITICS OF AFRICAN AMERICAN WOMEN POLITICAL LEADERS

Elice E. Rogers

ABSTRACT

This completed research investigation examines the politics of African American women political leaders. A critical ethnographic case study was used to obtain the data. As part of a larger study, the data revealed that afritics more accurately explains the politics of African American women as it relates to their political leadership experiences. Afritics is an africentric understanding of politics. Margaret Shaw (1992) states that an Africentric approach moves one through stages of personal, communal, and spiritual transcendence to bring about empowerment and, the unifying philosophical concepts in cooperation, connectedness, interrelatedness, and independence. Afritics also comes about because of the multiple lens, multiple consciousness, and multiple vision that African American women use in facing life experience. Afritics is the recognition that there exists two worlds, a white world which is the home of politics and a black world where African American women learn through experiences acquired in family, church, and community how to afritic and how to move from margin to center.

SUMMARY

This roundtable discussion examines theorizing about the politics of African American women political leaders by providing a discussion of afritics and politics. Second, the discussion explores a history of afritics as evidenced by the lives and works of Sojourner Truth, Anna Julia Cooper, Ida Bell Wells-Barnett, Fannie Lou Hammer, Mary Church Terrell, and Shirley Chisolm (Hine, 1993). Third, as part of a larger completed study the roundtable examines the contemporary afritics of former U.S. Senator Carol Moseley-Braun and Chicago's first African American Alderwoman, Anna Langford. The roundtable discussion reveals that this study of African American women political leaders holds vital implications for those of the African Diaspora because it contributes to the literature relative to race and the reluctance of mainstream adult educators to readily address race, class, and gender and their impact on adult learners and leaders.

The author's basis for analyzing the political style of African American women political leaders is rooted in the fact that African American women and their experiences have been misinterpreted and rejected. "Historians have failed to elicit and provide information regarding the contributions and achievements of women, especially African American women" (Gyant, 1990, p.1). Existing traditionalist theories and models of adult continuing education have focused on paradigms less relevant to African American ideals, values, and beliefs. Adult education fails to take into consideration the association between a person's culture and a person's development and learning in the analysis of the adult as learner (Flannery, 1994). My basis for theorizing the political style of African American women as political leaders is rooted in the premise that we are responsible as adult educators for inquiry involving adult development of leaders at the margin as well as at center, and the fact that there has been limited research which focuses on African American women and leadership development. The results of this investigation reveal that African American women have acquired a political style which embraces race, class, and gender and, as a result have an africentric perspective of politics acquired through formal and non-formal education. The evidence further reveals in roundtable discussion suggests that politics do not adequately and fully describe the political style of African American women political leaders.

Theorizing about African American women political leaders fills yet another theoretical void with respect to adult education-it is research which contributes to the development and theory pertinent to the African American perspective that is emancipatory, empowering, and critically ethnographic in nature. Finally, in roundtable discussion we discover that there exist other perspectives in the knowing and understanding of adults in society.

REFERENCES

Flannery, D. D. (1994). Changing dominant understanding of adults as learners. In E. Hayes & S. A. J. Colin, III (Eds.), *Confronting racism and sexism* (pp. 17-26). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. (New Directions For Adult and Continuing Education, No. 61)

Gyant, L. (1990). *Contributions of African American women to nonformal education during the Civil Rights Movement, 1955-1965.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park.

Hine, D. C. (1993). (Ed.). *Black women in America: An historical encyclopedia.* Brooklyn, NY: Carlson.

Shaw, M. (1992). *African-American strategies of successful adaptation in response to diseducation: A phenomenological investigation.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northern Illinois University, Dekalb.

Elice E. Rogers, Assistant Professor and Director of the Adult Education Graduate Program, Newman University, Wichita, KS. Rogerse@Newmanu.edu

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, 16801. March 16-18, 2000.

MOVING TOWARDS A SYMBIOTIC RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ADULT LEARNING THEORY AND PRACTICE

Juliet Smith
Kathy Kalinosky

ABSTRACT

We often hear about the gap between practice and theory in Adult Basic Education. Yet we are also familiar with the dictum that theory *should* inform practice and practice *should* inform theory. In this roundtable discussion, the inconsistency between the ideal and the reality will be explored as the presenters critically reflect upon their experience of leading an interactive session at last month's Pennsylvania Association for Adult and Continuing Education (PAACE) Midwinter Conference. At the PAACE session, the presenters opened up dialogue with the participants to explore and explicate their underlying assumptions and beliefs as well as introduce them to prominent theorists in the field. The presenters will continue this dialogue at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference (ER-AERC) by sharing PAACE participants' reactions and responses and discussing ways of closing this gap. These presentations at PAACE and ER-AERC are part of an ongoing project not only to close the gap but also create a symbiotic relationship between theory and practice.

SUMMARY

In our roundtable discussion at Eastern Regional Adult Educators Research Conference, (ER-AERC) we will discuss our experience of conducting an interactive session concerning practitioners' philosophies of theory and practice at the Pennsylvania Association for Adult and Continuing Educators' (PAACE) Midwinter Conference February 4-6 2000. The results to be discussed evolved from the critical incident questionnaires completed by participants and field notes documented by the researchers.

We often hear about the chasm between theory and practice in the field of Adult Basic Education (ABE). This gap is notable by the fact that we have conferences for practitioners and conferences for researchers; few practitioners are familiar with the names like Freire, Mezirow, or Knowles; and theorists write in language that is esoteric to the average practitioner. But theory is not some airy abstraction. By its definition, theory is "a belief, policy, or procedure proposed or followed as the basis of action" (ninth edition of *Webster's*). Theory underlies practice. Whether literacy practitioners realize it or not, they hold theories about teaching. In their interaction with students, selection of texts, goals set forth in the classroom, and reasons for choosing to be in the literacy field, their theories of teaching are evident.

In our presentation at PAACE, we explicated and explored practitioners' theories of teaching by helping teachers and administrators identify and understand what their respective theories are. Our hope was that practitioners gained a better understanding of themselves as teachers and their position in the field; developed a renewed purpose in their practice; and generated new enthusiasm for their continued professional development in these areas.

The adult educator, Allan Quigley (1997) in *Rethinking Literacy Education: The Critical Need for Practice Based Change*, describes and critiques the main adult learning theories and assumptions

---

This paper was accepted by the Student Review Board.

in straightforward, jargon-free terms. We followed his framework in our PAACE session as we encouraged our participants to look at their practice through a critical lens; we prompted them with questions such as, "What goals do you have for your adult learners?" "What does it mean to be literate?" "What assumptions do you make about your learners?" "What assumptions do you think they make about you as their teacher?"

At ER-AERC, we will discuss how practitioners' assumptions and philosophies of their practice align with well known adult learning theories and what steps can be taken to bring theory and practice closer together. The point of conducting research and formulating theories should be to improve practice and address practical problems such as increasing retention and recruitment. Practitioners and theorists should work together to address these issues. Practice should inform *and* be informed by theory. As, theory should inform *and* be informed by practice. We see our presentations at PAACE and ER-AERC as part of our ongoing project of not only closing the gap between theory and practice but also creating a symbiotic relationship between the two.

REFERENCES

Quigley, B. A. (1997). *Rethinking literacy education: the critical need for practice based change.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

Juliet Smith, Doctoral Candidate, Pennsylvania State University, Adult Education Graduate Program, 314 Keller Building, University Park, PA 16802. jas536@psu.edu.

Kathy Kalinosky, Doctoral Candidate, Pennsylvania State University, Adult Education Graduate Program, 314 Keller Building, University Park, PA 16802. kxk232@psu.edu.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Roundtables

DEVELOPING GOAL SETTING STRATEGIES FOR PROSPECTIVE STUDENTS OF GREATER PITTSBURGH LITERACY COUNCIL

Susan Snider

ABSTRACT

Students entering Greater Pittsburgh Literacy Council's (GPLC) tutoring program are required to attend a one and one-half hour informational session. Not only does this session furnish general information about the agency, it provides the student with the understanding of what the agency expects of him/her and what he/she can expect of the agency. From past experiences, it had been noted that although many students entered the program with specific goals in mind, many of them did not know how to realistically go about achieving those goals. This research study observed an experimental addition of an extended goal setting portion of the information session and found that although 29% of those attending these sessions already had previously decided on a goal, 91% of all who attended found the handouts and supplementary information beneficial in planning their goals. The results of this experiment led to the addition of an interactive goal setting portion of the information session. Potential students now leave this session more aware of the process of setting realistic goals.

SUMMARY

Part of my job at Greater Pittsburgh Literacy Council (GPLC) is to provide an informational session to all prospective basic students. During interviews with colleagues, current, and former students, I discovered that after attending this session, although students were more aware of how our program functioned and what was expected of them, their ideas about personal goals still were not solidified. Through the Action Research (AR) method of inquiry, I decided that I wanted to investigate how I could correct this problem. What made this method of inquiry engaging to me was that I would be able to implement one possible "solution," document it, and if I found out it was not working as I had hoped, I could amend what I was doing and try again in another "cycle" of observation. Using different interventions (methods of change) to get different results did not take extra time because the work was being done in my practice. This one reason in particular justified doing research in this way. Anything I could glean from this experiment would benefit my practice. The flexibility of using Action Research also helped me determine the length of the cycles of the intervention I wanted to use. I randomly chose students from the greater Pittsburgh area who previously attended one of the information sessions in the past year and had telephone interviewers ask them what, if anything, they remembered about the session. There were several questions specifically pertaining to goal setting. The results of these interviews prompted me to revise the presentation, adding an in-depth section about goals and goal setting. I then had the same interviewers contact students who had attended the information sessions in the past 3-6 months. Using the same questions, I had hoped that of those contacted, at least 10% would say that the information that I gave them on goal setting was helpful in making decisions about goals and goal setting. To my surprise, 90% found this to be the case. When I decided to add more material to the session, I was able to summarize less crucial information and concentrate on hands-on activities pertaining to goal setting. It has been my experience that students come into these sessions and after telling me their name, do not speak at all. Another accomplishment from this experiment was that silent students began to talk not only to me, but also to one another. I want to share with teachers, tutors, and practitioners the results of this project, for they were both quantitative and qualitative. The numbers speak for themselves, but I need to speak for the students who have told my colleagues to tell me they have a better grasp on the future because of that session. They now understand more clearly the difference between saying they want to achieve a certain goal and realistically planning to make that goal come to fruition. Our students are now faced with many challenges from welfare reform to workforce initiatives and as practitioners we must provide them with the tools needed to set, prioritize, maintain, and achieve their goals not only in their literacy studies, but in their every day lives, as well.

Susan Snider, Student/Tutor Support Specialist, Greater Pittsburgh Literacy Council, 100 Sheridan Square, 4th Floor, Pittsburgh, PA 15206-3019

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Roundtables

AN OPPORTUNITY FOR EMPOWERMENT: BELIZE WOMEN MIGRATION EXPERIENCES FROM CENTRAL AMERICA TO NORTH AMERICA

Cathy S. Stanley

ABSTRACT

This study examines the migratory patterns of Belizean women from Central America to North America through Narrative. During the 1970's – 1990's, thousands of Central Americans left their homelands and moved to more prosperous areas particularly the United States. Interviews with 25 Belizean women found a substantial difference in reasons for this migration. Implications of these findings for understanding are discussed.

SUMMARY

Few studies have examined the role of migration patterns of Belizean women from Central to North America. Empirical analysis challenges many of our propositions that most women move for labor marker reasons, ties to family or for reasons related to life course transitions and the improvement of their place utility, or that migrants return to their homeland financially more solvent then when they left.

The purpose of this study was to provide a description and an analysis of the experience of Belizean women's knowledge about themselves and their decisions to make the migration from Central America to North America. My focus was on the social and political climate that can account for the extent and cause and influence of this migration experience. My interest in this subject was to uncover factors that are significant to the inter-relatedness of gender and migration, particularly for Belizean women.

To do so, the author conducted one and one-half to two hour semi-structured personal interviews with a sample of 25 Belizean migrants. I used an ethnographic style of interview, keeping the tone of the interviews empathetic, curious and conversational. Direct quotations were often the basic source of data, because they revealed how each woman perceived her own situation. Respondents were recruited from several community-based agencies and churches. The selected group of women was asked to respond to several questions that pertained to lived experiences and t hose experiences that they felt changed their lives.

The findings will have implications beyond theorizing about female migration. Understanding of the influences and patterns of migration of Belizean women may offer opportunities to gain new knowledge of the relationship between poverty, economic and political freedom and the island-mainland process, as well as recognize the contribution that narrative makes in creation of meaning making. This paper explores the migratory stories of three Belizean women.

Cathy S. Stanley, Doctoral Student, ACE, Northern Illinois University, Dekalb, IL. 60015

Presented at the Eastern Regional Research Conference. Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000.

2000 Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

Refereed Roundtables

DOORWAY TO HOPE: EMPOWERING THE HOMELESS THROUGH THE APPLICATION OF THE PRINCIPLES OF ADULT EDUCATION

Donald J. Yarosz

ABSTRACT

According to findings by a group of independent investigators, after comparing 3 exemplary programs for the homeless in the State of New Jersey, Doorway to Hope was found to be clearly far superior to the others studied. The purpose of this study was to use naturalistic inquiry to discover what made Doorway to Hope, a shelter for homeless women and their children, such a "model" program. The theoretical principle that guided this study was naturalistic inquiry using grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Through the use of interviews with participants in the program, facilitators, and program administrators, it has been concluded through preliminary analyses that several principles of adult education are at work at Doorway to Hope. Utilizing trained paraprofessionals who are indigenous to the community being served, valuing the experience of these women during facilitated group discussion, and disseminating expert knowledge through group discussion principles were the major adult principles at work. It is hoped that those working with the homeless reflect upon the lessons learned at Doorway.

SUMMARY

According to findings by a group of independent investigators, after comparing 3 exemplary programs for the homeless in the State of New Jersey, Doorway to Hope was found to be clearly far superior to the others studied. The purpose of this study was to use naturalistic inquiry to discover what made Doorway to Hope, a shelter for homeless women and their children, such a "model" program. The theoretical principle that guided this study was naturalistic inquiry using grounded theory. Through the use of interviews with participants in the program, facilitators, and program administrators, it has been concluded through preliminary analyses that several principles of adult education (Brookfield, 1986) are at work at Doorway to Hope. People that don't necessarily know anything about the *formal* theories of adult education are implementing these adult education principles and practices quite effectively. What are the essential adult education components that contribute significantly to the success of the program? It was found that these principles are (a) utilizing trained paraprofessionals who are indigenous to the community being served, (b) valuing the experience of these women during facilitated group discussion, and (3) expert knowledge disseminated through group discussion and adult education principles. Each will be discussed in turn.

UTILIZING TRAINED PARAPROFESSIONALS WHO ARE INDIGENOUS TO THE COMMUNITY BEING SERVED

This program was established prior to receiving federal funding. The founders of the program used this approach because they found that it was very difficult to establish a trusting relationship with the homeless using traditional means. The federal grant administrators at first wanted to use professionals exclusively but at the last minute the use of paraprofessionals was approved. It is through the use of a training of trainers model that quality counseling services are realized. A highly trained professional spends most of the time teaching paraprofessionals to deliver the special services these women need. However, it is through their *experience* not through book knowledge or an internship that supervised paraprofessional women relate to clients of Doorway to Hope. What makes the paraprofessionals so effective is that they have an intimate and worldly knowledge of the streets; they can empathize with those they work with in a way that most (though not all;

there are exceptions) highly educated middle class women *without* the inner city experience cannot.

VALUING THE EXPERIENCE OF THESE WOMEN DURING FACILITATED GROUP DISCUSSION

Being homeless is a tremendous burden and can have a real impact on anyone's self esteem. It is through highly skilled group discussion that these women can share their experiences with others and help each other to get back on their feet.

EXPERT KNOWLEDGE IS DISSEMINATED THROUGH GROUP DISCUSSION AND ADULT EDUCATION PRINCIPLES

Social service agents are brought in who are skilled at working with the marginalized adult population. Some, such as county agents connected with University extension, have degrees in adult education.

The objective of the Doorway to Hope program is to build confidence and to empower these women to take control of their lives. It is hoped that those working with the homeless reflect upon the lessons learned at Doorway.

REFERENCES

Brookfield, S. D. (1986). *Understanding and facilitating adult learning*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory*. Chicago: Aldine.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Donald J.Yarosz, Ed.D., CUNY Office of Institutional Research and Analysis, Rm. 1657, 555 West 57th Street, 16th Floor, New York, NY 10019.

Presented at the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference, Penn State, University Park, PA, March 16-18, 2000

Proceedings of the

Eastern Regional Adult Education Research Conference

March 16 - 18, 1999

Table of Contents by Topic

LEARNING FROM PRACTICE

Papers

Bingman, M. & Mincy, R	Documenting Outcomes for Learners and Their Communities: An Action Research Project	15
Brown, S.	Strategies That Contribute to Nontraditional/Adult Student Development and Persistence	21
Cason, K. L.	Relationship of Teaching Style, Personality Profile, and Level of Burnout with Adult Educator Effectiveness	41
Cini, M. & Fritz, J. M. H.	Faculty Perceptions of Accelerated and Traditional Course Formats	47
Dowd, A. & Coury, T.	Defining the "Nontraditional" College Student through Cluster Analysis	65
King, K. P.	Crossing Cultural and Linguistic Borders: The Adult ESL Experience of Perspective Transformation	125
Morrow, K.	Learning to Learn: What Happens When Research Recommendations Hit the Ground?	137
Siegel, I.	The Relevance of Lindeman's (1926) *The Meaning of Adult Education* to Adult Educators in 21st Century	213

Symposia

Kuhne, G.	Pennsylvania Action Research Network (PAARN): Synopsis of Highlights of Findings from Five Years of Practitioner Research in Pennsylvania	291

Roundtables

Bell, B. & Mcguire, P.	Assessing Student Progress Toward the EFF Standards: Issues and Lessons to Date	299

Table of Contents by Topic (Continued)

Burger, B.	The Shell Model of Adult Education	303
Clark, S.	Strategies for Senior Learners	311
Humbert, T.	Developing Critical Thinking Skills within an Associate Degree Program: Can it be Accomplished?	321
King, C.	Opening the Mind: Fundamental Attitudes and the Interior Structure of Openness	323
McNally, P.	The McNally-Killion Learning Organization Model: A Case Study in Managing Change	329
Smith, J. & Kalinosky, K.	Moving Towards a Symbiotic Relationship Between Adult Learning, Theory and Practice	337
Snider, S.	Developing an Intense Goal-Setting Portion of Student Orientation: Helping Students to Focus on Their Goals and Remain With Greater Pittsburgh Literacy Council Until Those Goals are Achieved	339
Yarosz, D. J.	Doorway to Hope: Empowering the Homeless through the Application of the Principles of Adult Education.	343

LITERACY

Papers

Beder, H.	The Adult Literacy Classroom as a Social System	3
Bingman, M. & Ebert, O.	"I've Come A Long Way:" A Report on a Study of Outcomes of Adult Literacy Programs	9
Gersten, K.	Johnny Can Read; He Chooses Not To: The Reading Development of Literate Adults Who Do Not Engage in Leisure Reading	89
Nowalk, T.	Why They Come: An Exploration Into Retention and Motivation in an Adult ESL Program	151
Phillips, A.	Learning and Collaborating for Adult Literacy Education	183
Vasily, L. & Steele, V.	Perspectives on a Community Development Approach to Adult Literacy Education in New York State	239
Weirauch, D.	Assessing and Transforming Learning in Adult Students in Teacher Education Programs Using the Process of Concept Mapping	251

Table of Contents by Topic (Continued)

DISTANCE EDUCATION

Papers

Carr-Chellman, A. Choi, I. & Hernandez-Serrano, J.	Simulating the Impact of Web-Based Learning on the University	35
D'Amico, D. & Donnelly, M.	Blurring the Boundaries Between Acquisition and Learning: Television-Based Literacy Services in Community and Home Contexts	59
Easton, S.	Introducing the Mentor Role in Online Distance Learning: A Case Study of Implementation at Florida State University	71
Folkman, D., & Rai, K.	Adult Educator Role in Fostering Collaborative Leadership: The Milwaukee Wisconsin Experience in School-Family-Community Partnerships	83
Graybash, Jr., P.	Selecting Communications Technology for Continuing Professional Education Program Delivery	107
Perez, S. & Foshay, W.	Critical Success Factors for Internet-Based Learning in Developmental Mathematics: A Preliminary Report	177
Shafer, D.	Outcomes of Faculty Participation in Distance Education	195
Stringer, S. & Thomson, J.	An Applied Approach to Public Education and Outreach: Meeting Criteria for Local Media	221
Thompson, M. & Askov, E.	Penn State's Master's Degree in Adult Education Online: Emerging Research Questions in Teaching for the World Campus	233
Williams, S.	Do We Practice What We Preach? An Examination of the Philosophical Orientation and Practice of Adult Educators Who Deliver Web-Based Instruction	257
Wise, M.	Learning to Live Beyond a Heart Attack: An Interpretive Case Study of Individuals' Experience with an On-Line Heart Disease Education Program	269

Symposia

King, K. P., Tiago, A. & Lawler, P.	The Digital Divide: What Does it Mean for Adult Education?	285

Table of Contents by Topic (Continued)

INTERNATIONAL AND MULTICULTURAL PERSPECTIVES

Papers

Brown-Haywood, F.	The Essence of Leadership: Looking Through the Eyes of Black Protestant Pastors	27
Ferro, T. R.	Multiple Intelligences and Adult Learning: A Review of the Literature	77
Griffin, J.	The New Millennium: Proper Timing for the Inclusion of African Americans' Contributions to Adult Education	113
Mulenga, D.	The Role of Adult Education in the New World Order: A Perspective from the South	143
Ostorga, A. & King, K. P.	Pre-Service Teachers' Ways of Knowing and the Development of Reflective Thinking	161
Parker, O. M.	Why Adult Educators Should Care About Diversity: A Literature Review	167
Shin, N. & Schied, F. M.	A Critical Analysis of Adult Learning Theories: What Do We Really Know About Adult Learning?	201

Symposia

Boucouvalas, M., McCabe, R., Thongsukmag, J. & Bhumibhanit, V.	Building Upon the UNESCO Recommendations for the New Millennium-Learning to Live Together: A Symposium of Perspectives	277

Roundtables

Curry, R., Woodhouse, J. Liao, S. &,Outlaw, G.	Learning at the Edge of Social Movements for Cultural and Ecological Sustainability	313
London, P.	The Power of Incidental Learning: Girlhood to Womanhood	325
Outlaw, G. & Stanley, C.	Roots and Culture as Transformation in Adult Education	331
Rogers, E.	Politics: Theorizing the Afritics of African American Women Political Leaders	335

Table of Contents by Topic (Continued)

Work and Community

Papers

Coyle, E. & Ellinger, A.	A Comparison of Mezirow's Transformation Theory and the Change Process Experienced by Female Entrepreneurs	53
Giles, I. & Thompson, T. C.	One to Two Hundred Fifty WWW-Based Courses in Twenty-Four Months: An Analysis of the Selection, Training, Development, and Retention of Faculty Within a Rapid Course-Growth Environment	95
Glowacki-Dudka, M. & Rossing, B.	Dialogue for Understanding. Dialogue for Action: Tensions in Real World Practice	101
Haugen, H.	Epistemology at Work: Extension Educators and Their Ways of Knowing	119
McKnight, J.	Teaching Community Directed Education and Research Methods and Techniques: A Case Study	131
Oblender, T., Flannery, D., Ellinger, A. Willard-Holt, C.	The Community Life Task Force as an Informal Community-Based Adult Education Program: A Continua of Critical Reflection, Dialogue, and Praxis	155
Pearce, C.	Informal Learning of Homeless Women: A Feminist Study of Surviving the Everyday	173
Raditloaneng, W.	Adult Education as Vocational Training: The Case of Botswana	189
Shuman, C. & Spikes, W. F.	Factors Enhancing Participation in Continuing Professional Education for Social Workers in Rural Locations	207
Sullivan, M. A.	One of the Boys? Women's Experiences in Male-Dominated Vocational-Technical Majors	227
Wagner, D & Flannery, D.	The Determination of Factors Affecting User Acceptance of a Computer-Based Training Support Tool in the Workplace	245
Wilson, A.	Place, Power, and Identity in Continuing Professional Education	263

Table of Contents by Topic (Continued)

Roundtables

Carkhuff, M.	The Road Less Traveled: Learners' Perspectives in a Cross-Functional Work Group	305
Carman, P. & Watson, H.	Framework for Work-Based Foundation Skills	307
Childers, J., Azhar, T., & Williams, J.	Needs Assessment and Evaluation: Are We Practicing What We Preach?	309
DeBlasio, R.	Action Research and Needs Assessment for Collective Manufacturing Organizations' Environmental Management Systems (EMS)	315
Eberly, D.	Development of a Valid Job-Relevant Field Training Officer Program Through Job Task Analysis and the Application of Social Learning Theory	317
Fontenot, A.	Exploring Multicultural and Gender Issues: Andragogy in Welfare-to-Work Programs	319
Price, M.	Barriers to Continuing Education Among Ministers in the Christian Church (Disciples of Christ) in North Carolina: Myths, Realities, Insights, and Strategies	333
Stanley, C.	Opportunity for Empowerment: Belize Women's Migration from Central America to North America	341
Yarosz, D. J.	Doorway to Hope: Empowering the Homeless Through the Application of the Principles of Adult Education	343

U.S. Department of Education

Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC)

Reproduction Release Form

For each document submitted, ERIC is required to obtain a signed reproduction release form indicating whether or not ERIC may reproduce the document. A copy of the release form appears below or you may obtain a form from the Clearinghouse. Please mail two copies of your document with a completed release form to:

ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education

Acquisitions Coordinator

1900 Kenny Road

Columbus, OH 43210-1090

If you have any questions about submitting documents to ERIC, please call 1-800-848-4815, ext 47642 or e-mail <chambers.2@osu.edu>.

ERIC REPRODUCTION RELEASE FORM

I. Document Identification

Title:	Proceedings of the Eastern Regional Adult Education Research
Author(s):	Kathleen P. King and Trenton R. Ferro, Editors
Date of Publication:	2000 (March 16-18)

II. Reproduction Release

A. Timely and significant materials of interest to the educational community are announced in the monthly abstract journal of the ERIC system, *Resources in Education* (RIE). Documents are usually made available to users in microfiche, reproduced paper copy, and electronic media, and sold through the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS) or other ERIC vendors. Credit is given to the source of each document. If reproduction release is granted, one of the following notices is affixed to the document.

Level 1

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY:

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

Level 2A

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE AND IN ELECTRONIC MEDIA FOR ERIC COLLECTION SUBSCRIBERS ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY:

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)." **Level 2B**

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY:

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)." Note: The above lines do **NOT** have to be signed by the person submitting the document. A signature is required below to place the document in the database if it is accepted.

B. If permission is granted to reproduce and disseminate the identified document, please CHECK ONE of the following three options and sign the release.

☑ Permitting reproduction and dissemination in microfiche or other ERIC archival media (e.g., electronic) *and* paper copy **(Level 1)**.

☐ Permitting reproduction and dissemination in microfiche and in electronic media for ERIC archival collection subscribers only **(Level 2A)**.

☐ Permitting reproduction and dissemination in microfiche only **(Level 2B)**.

Documents will be processed as indicated provided quality permits. If permission to reproduce is granted, but no box is checked, documents will be processed at **Level 1**.

C. "I hereby grant to the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) nonexclusive permission to reproduce and disseminate this document as indicated. Reproduction from the ERIC microfiche or electronic media by persons other that ERIC employees and its system contractors requires permission from the copyright holder. Exception is made for nonprofit reproduction by libraries and other service agencies to satisfy information needs of educators in response to discrete inquires."

Name: Trenton R. Ferro

Signature:

Organization: Department of Adult & Community Education, Indiana Univ

Position: Associate Professor, Graduate Coordinator, & Chair

Address: 206 Stouffer Hall, 1175 Maple St.
Indiana, PA□□□

Zip Code: 15705

Telephone No: (724) 357-2470

Fax: (724) 357-7821

E-mail: trferro@iup.edu

Date: 11/15/2002

III. Document Availability Information

(Non-ERIC Source)

If permission to reproduce is not granted to ERIC, or, if you wish ERIC to cite the availability of the document from another source, please provide the following information regarding the availability of the document. (ERIC will not announce a document unless it is publicly available, and a dependable source can be specified. Contributors should also be aware that ERIC selection criteria are significantly more stringent for documents that cannot be made available through EDRS.)

Publisher/Distributor:

Address: □□□

Price Per Copy:

Quantity Price:

IV. Referral to Copyright/Reproduction Rights Holder

If the right to grant this reproduction release is held by someone other than the addressee, please provide the appropriate name and address: